The Nation.

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The Week.

THE invitation extended by the commercial bodies of Chicago to President and Mrs. Cleveland to accept a public non-partisan reception in that city to express "our deep sense of appreciation of your statesmanlike and courageous action in maintaining the financial credit of our Government, and your uncompromising attitude in favor of the preservation of a sound national currency," is the emphatic response of business men to the scurrilous attacks made upon Mr. Cleveland in Congress and the press on account of the syndicate loan which is now in course of fulfilment. That financial arrangement quieted a panic which was in full blast and would have drawn every dollar of gold out of the Treasury if it had lasted a week longer. Failure to pay gold would have been bankruptcy, and this fact would have put enormous difficulties in the way of getting more gold to resume with. Mr. Cleveland did the only thing that it was possible to do in order to save trade and industry from incalculable distress. For this he was abused and vilified, both in and out of Congress, in terms that would have disgraced the fish-market. The expiring House of Representatives, in order to give vent to its ignorance and malice in the most emphatic manner, voted that the bonds should draw 3¾ per cent. interest instead of 3 per cent., thus taking vengeance on the taxpayers to satisfy its animosity against Mr. Cleveland. That Congress has now "passed in its chips," and this Chicago invitation is the first public proof that the business men of the country are on the side of the President. What the commercial bodies of Chicago have said, all the other commercial bodies of the country think, and if Mr. Cleveland should make a tour of the United States at this time, he would be received by the business men everywhere with a more cordial welcome than he ever had before in his whole public career.

Immediately after the election last fall the reformers of Illinois began active work to secure from the new Legislature the passage of a law introducing the merit system in that State. The movement was under the leadership of the Civic Federation of Chicago, a non-political and non-sectarian association organized about a year ago for the purpose of "promoting the honesty, efficiency, and economy of the municipal government and the highest welfare of the citizens," and to "increase the interest of citizens in municipal affairs by securing the utmost practical separation of municipal issues from State and national politics." From the very start the movement met with the greatest popular favor. The press of the city supported it with practical unanimity, and the most influential newspapers in the State were earnest in their appeals for favorable action by the Legislature. So powerfully did public sentiment express itself that the spoilsmen were constrained to bow to it, and the Legislature passed "an act to regulate the civil service of cities," authorizing the voters of any municipality to apply the reform system to their civil service whenever so disposed. In the campaign leading up to the municipal election on Tuesday, the Civic Federation was backed by the clergy and unanimously by the Trade and Labor Assembly, and the cheering result was a majority of 45,000 for the abandonment of the spoils system.

Both in Ohio and in Connecticut, Monday's elections indicated the reaction against the A. P. A. movement which was sure to occur. Columbus has been the chief seat of the propaganda in Ohio, and the Republicans this week paid the penalty of encouraging the craze. In Bridgeport the A. P. A. element got control of the Republican convention, and made the issue sharp on members of the school committee. Extraordinary interest was aroused, and about two thousand women participated in the choice of committeemen, the great majority of their votes being cast for the liberal ticket. The result was a majority of about two thousand for the members opposed by the A. P. A., while enough Republicans were so much disgusted with the attitude of their party that they voted for the Democratic candidate for mayor, who was elected by a smaller majority. It is conceded by both sides that the election would have gone the other way but for the introduction of this issue. It is amazing that men who pride themselves upon their shrewdness as "practical politicians" should be so easily deluded with the idea that votes are to be made by such tactics, when the history of the country has shown over and over again that a party could not adopt a worse policy for carrying elections.

We are sorry to see in Senator Platt of Connecticut a disposition to warn the people against expecting too much of the next Congress. The last Congress was properly execrated for incompetence, and a successor of the opposite political faith was chosen. But if the new one turns out equally incompetent, we must not judge it too harshly, but encourage it to do better next time. It would appear, however, that Senator Platt cannot have read ex-Speaker Reed's recent interview concerning the personnel of the next House. Mr. Reed had met nearly all of the new Republican members, and gave a most cheering account of them. They were, without exception, men of singular patriotism, high-mindedness, and ability. They were all going to vote for Reed for Speaker, and to follow up that action by a succession of others (not named, we admit) fully as patriotic and equally designed to benefit the country and to make it truly great and glorious. This is first-hand testimony of an impartial witness, and why will not Senator Platt accept it? Is he prepared to believe, simply because Republicans misbehave in Albany or in Indianapolis, that such an order of men as Mr. Reed declares the next House to consist of can fail to make us all happy and rich and proud of our institutions? For our part, we shall not believe it till we see it, and we do not expect to see it before about a year from this time.

Senator Lodge is enabled to keep up his racket about the "Monroe doctrine" because few people know what it is, and many people will believe his account of it. Under it he says that a European power may demand compensation for injuries done to one of its citizens, but may not exact payment by any species of coercion. The notion that such a rule as this can be enforced against Europe on behalf of some fifteen American States deepens the impression that Lodge and his coadjutors are simply having some fun with the public. The alternative supposition, that they are in earnest, is too extravagant for general acceptance. There is no great harm done by it that we know of except making us ridiculous in the eyes of civilized man. Our recent discussions of foreign politics, especially through such organs as Senator Morgan, so closely resemble the dialogues between Birch and Backus, the famous minstrels, in the old days, that a great many people think them forgeries.

The narrow escape from war we have had in the Nicaragua matter ought to be a subject of great thankfulness. Lord Kimberley, in proposing arbitration for the settlement of Great Britain's difficulties with Nicaragua, laid it down that "no citizen of any American State" must be among the arbitrators. As there are forty-four North American States of this Union, and fifteen Central and South American, the young man in the *Tribune* office who attends to these matters was disposed to hold that this meant fifty-nine deliberate insults, besides being "an explicit declaration by England that she declined to recognize any force in the Monroe doc-

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trine," and "a gratuitous reflection on the United States." Fifty-nine insults, one "gratuitous reflection," and one non-recognition of the Monroe doctrine constitute probably as promising a *casus belli* as has ever arisen. Another day of delay in explanation, and the dogs of war would have been let loose in every newspaper office in the country. Lord Kimberley, however, quickly saw what was impending, and changed his tune. He now says he meant only citizens of the South American republics, and that the British Foreign Office never uses the phrase "American States" in speaking of the United States. It can hardly be doubted that he is prevaricating, and that he really meant to insult us and to repudiate the Monroe doctrine; but let that pass. We suppose we are compelled, under what are called "diplomatic usages," to accept his explanation, but it is noticeable how obedience to these usages in Secretary Gresham's hands always results in the humiliation of the United States, and with what impunity the agents of monarchical powers can apologize and explain to him. "No British minister," says the young man in the *Tribune* office, "ever attempted to crawl out of a smaller hole than this quibbling explanation opens, but since Lord Kimberley is out of it, his disavowal may be taken as satisfactory." But why should it be taken as satisfactory? It is all very well for Secretary Gresham to take it as satisfactory—it is like him to do so; but why should a young "newspaper diplomatist," whose business is to keep Kimberley in his holes, allow him to crawl out? It seems to us as if our foreign affairs were getting into a critical condition in the hands of two such blunderers.

Capt. Mahan was rather cruel to the great international lawyer and naval strategist (temporarily acting as reporter for the *Sun*) who sought him out, on his return from his foreign cruise, to get his opinion about ships, war, England, the Oriental situation, insults to the flag, etc. Perceiving his inability to cope with his questioner in the subtler matters of diplomacy, the captain refused to discuss them at all. The reporter then passed lightly to the question whether England was not greatly concerned about her Pacific possessions, "since Japan has developed into a conspicuous naval power." But the hard-hearted captain denied that Japan had so developed, and asserted that even after the captured Chinese vessels were repaired and commissioned, England could easily assemble a superior fleet. Dropping that point, the newspaper publicist next took up the question of England's dread of Japanese competition in foreign commerce. Here again, however, he met with an unsympathetic request to point out a single manufactured article that Japan could supply in competition with England. "But the ships," said the reporter, "the increased Japanese naval power—do not they necessarily mean an extension of Japanese commerce?" The reply of the unfeeling Mahan was: "A power which seeks to extend its trade by the aid of its navy must have goods to trade." All this shows what an overrated man the captain is, or, what is more likely, that his stay and flattering reception in England have completely turned his head, and given it a dangerously un-American twist.

An Ohio Circuit Court decided last week at Cincinnati that the Dodge inheritance-tax law of that State is unconstitutional. The point upon which the decision turned was the section of the Constitution requiring that all taxes should be uniform. There could be no question here of "territorial uniformity," as in the case of the phrase of the federal Constitution making the same provision. The court said the section must mean that there should be no discrimination between the various owners of property. One rate and treatment should be applied to all. But the Dodge law, by exempting estates of $20,000 from the tax, really made such discrimination. An owner succeeding to an estate of $20,000 would enter upon it untaxed, but one inheriting $20,001 would be taxed, and thereby have his property cut down to $19,800. This process, the court held, was obnoxious to the constitutional requirement of uniformity, and hence the law contemplating it was invalid. Under such an interpretation of the word "uniform," it is clear that no such tax as the federal income tax could be levied in Ohio, nor can graduated taxation, that pleasing dream of socialists, ever be practised in that State.

The attempt to collect an income tax from foreigners, which the law passed by the last Congress evidently contemplates, is a novelty in our legislation if not in that of the civilized world. The income tax levied during and after the civil war did not include foreigners, and it was held in at least one ruling of the internal-revenue office that it could not include them because they were beyond the jurisdiction of the taxing power. There is room for a distinction, however, between a tax levied *in rem*—that is, against property within our jurisdiction, as, for example, railway shares—and on the gross income of the foreigner derived from property in this country. Corporations are taxed directly under the law, so that the income derived by foreigners from that source is lessened by the amount of the tax. That is clearly within the scope of our powers, but the attempt to make foreigners file statements of income derived from property situated in the United States—that is, to coöperate with our taxing authorities—and to impose penalties on them if they neglect to do so, is of doubtful validity. As the person is not within our jurisdiction, the question how the penalty is to be enforced becomes important. The theory of the law is, that the person liable to pay the tax must make a return under oath, and that if it is not a true return, he shall be liable to prosecution for perjury. What kind of oath taken by a foreigner in his own country would form the basis for a prosecution for perjury in this country, even if we could lay our hands on him? But how can we lay our hands on him in any case? If we cannot prosecute him for a false oath, what is the use of having his oath at all? These incongruities are, perhaps, among the seventy-five defects that Senator Vest says the finance committee intended to cure by amendments when the bill should go into conference committee, but which were rendered incurable by the action of the House in swallowing the whole bill as it came from the Senate.

One of the most interesting of the reports of the experts of the Dockery Commission related to the function of the naval officers in the auditing of collectors' accounts. There are six such independent naval officers—at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, and San Francisco. What they really do, and all that they really do, is to audit accounts. But the experts show that the auditing can just as well be done in the auditor's office at Washington. They make an exception in favor of New York, on account of the great volume of business at that port and the expense of sending on so many papers to Washington; but the naval officers at the other ports they show to be entirely needless. Why should Baltimore, collecting $2,990,750 of duties, need a naval officer if Chicago, collecting $6,137,864, can get on without one? Why should New Orleans, collecting but $1,271,203, support a naval officer and assistants at an annual cost of $14,700? There is, of course, no answer except that the spoilsmen want the places. The experts recommend the abolition of all naval offices except that of New York, and show that the result would be a saving to the Government of $86,105 a year. But we fear this reform will prove as difficult to secure as the consolidation of Maine customs districts which Secretary Folger endeavored to get through Congress, but which was promptly blocked, presumably by Congressman Reed, who was reported to have said that there was more "political hell" in the consolidation bill than in anything he was acquainted with.

Mr. Bland, silver's true lover and ex-M. C., compiled and had published in the *Congressional Record* of March 20 a history of all the votes taken on silver in either house since the Forty-fourth Congress. This makes a handy record, but we notice a lack of fulness and accuracy in it at one point. It states that "in the House, November 7, 1877, Mr. Bland

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moved to suspend the rules and pass a bill (H. R. 1093) to authorize the coinage of a dollar of 412½ grains silver standard, and for other purposes." Now, what were the facts? It was on October 29, 1877, that Mr. Bland made a motion such as he describes, but the bill was House bill 571. This bill was talked and filibustered out of time on that day, and went over, under the rules, to the following Monday as unfinished business. On that Monday, November 5, the Speaker called up the bill, but Mr. Bland slipped in a new measure, House bill 1093, not with the title he now alleges, but the entirely different one, "A bill to authorize the *free coinage* of the standard silver dollar, and to restore its legal-tender character." It was rushed through under suspension of the rules, though few members of the House knew what they were really voting for. This was made clear the next day, when Mr. Frye rose and charged Mr. Bland with having practised a fraud on the House in substituting one bill for another without notice or consent. Mr. Bland then answered that whether he was right or wrong, the House and the country were with him, and he wanted the gentleman to know that he was not there for the purpose of being catechised by the gentleman or by any one else. After all these years, however, he thinks it better to tamper with the record and give the bill that was passed its right number, but wrong title. It will look to the future historian as if there was such a thing also as "the crime of 1877."

Strikes for the restoration of wages to rates in force before the panic are reported in various industries, particularly in the woollen manufacture. In many cases wages have been voluntarily restored by employers, notably by that heartless enemy of labor, Mr. Frick. One large woollen house states, according to the *Reporter*, that it has restored all but 10 per cent. of the reduction made in wages during the past two years, and means promptly to restore the rest, inasmuch as the total production of their mills is contracted for in advance, and it is good business to guard against dissatisfaction on the part of the employees. Such things are the well-known incidents of improving business, but what of the great truth that wages cannot go up till the tariff goes up? We fear that the experiences of the present year will convince workers in protected industries that ex-Speaker Reed was right in admitting, under the prodding of Mr. Cockran, that high wages were ruled by the law of supply and demand, modified by the strength and wisdom of labor organizations; and not at all by the tariff.

The New Jersey thieves whose exploits are now undergoing investigation and exposure, can never have wondered at their own moderation, for they displayed none. As was shown on Friday, they sold everything in the State-house belonging to the State except the building itself, and robbed the public treasury on all bills presented. Gov. Abbett's postage stamps and incidentals cost the State $1,200, $1,869, and $3,627 for the three years of his service respectively, as against the $285, $405, $815 of Gov. Green, his predecessor, and the $515 and $561 of Gov. Werts, his successor. But of course Abbett was a great figure in national politics, and must have had a good deal of postage to pay on his letters to Hill and Gorman and other worthies, advocating the extension of New Jersey and New York machine politics to national affairs. That all this shameless and practically unconcealed stealing could have gone on without the knowledge and connivance of other Democratic bosses, no sane man should be asked to believe.

No political movement of the present year in this country surpasses in interest the South Carolina preparation for a constitutional convention. This convention was the wish of Tillman and his faction, and was carried last fall by a very small majority. The Tillmanites might have proceeded with a high hand to pack it, but with much shrewdness they privately entered into an agreement with their adversaries "to advocate before the white Democrats of the State" a scheme of proportionate representation, county by county, and a platform for delegates common to the extent of "the following principles or basic conditions":

"(a) No white man to be disfranchised except for crime.

"(b) Such qualification of the suffrage as will guarantee white supremacy ["the Mississippi plan or something better"].

"(c) Constitution of principles, and not dealing with legislation, but leaving to the Legislature full control of the free schools, and requiring the Legislature to liberally support them.

"(d) The Constitution, when adopted, not to be submitted back to the people."

This so-called "pacification scheme" has the familiar ante-bellum air of peace at the expense of the colored American, and there is one man in South Carolina—a white man and a native—who does not hesitate to stigmatize it as "un-Christian, un-American, un-democratic," and "a conspiracy against the Constitution and laws of the nation." We refer to Mr. John J. Dargan, editor and proprietor of the Sumter *Freeman*, and an independent candidate for delegate to the convention. His position in maintaining the fullest right of suffrage for the blacks, his appeals against race prejudice, against negro lynching and oppression in every form, and for practical assistance in elevating those whom it is now sought to disfranchise, are such as might have emanated from the Boston *Liberator*. Mr. Dargan has actively taken the stump in the intervals of his hard struggle to keep his paper alive, and has naturally received the usual admonition that his "incendiary speeches" will lead to bloody strife. "Legions of white men," writing from Hartsville, have assured him that "we consider it blood economy to take the blood of one man rather than the blood of many." Mr. Dargan, with rare moral courage, responds in the *Freeman* that if they will get up a meeting at Hartsville he will be happy to come there alone and address them on the negro question. "It would save them a long ride, and have me handy for the 'heinous deed' they say they wish to commit upon me." The convention will meet on the second Tuesday in September, and it will be a pity if Mr. Dargan's name is not upon the roll. He would probably be the sole representative of the nascent Southern conscience regarding the means employed for the past eighteen years to "guarantee white supremacy."

The departure of Croker to England last week to attend the races in that country, in high health, with his pockets full of money, leaving the reformers still wrestling with the problem of getting his creatures out of the city offices, recalls once more very vividly the extraordinary character of the episode known as Tammany rule in this city. Six years ago four unknown, and all but one utterly illiterate, Irishmen determined to get hold of this great city and manage it for their own personal benefit. They may be said to have issued a prospectus of their syndicate under the name of "The New Tammany, Limited." They carried out their programme in every particular, with the consent of the citizens. They got hold of all the offices and all the taxes, and kept them for six years. One of them opened an office where he sold legislation of the State Legislature at retail to all comers. The others levied taxes on salaries and contracts, and gave the most lucrative places to bummers and semi-criminals. They played their game so boldly that they made no pretence even of decency. After six years they retired with fortunes. Three of them are now travelling and horse-racing in Europe as rich *rentiers*. Another is living among us as a wealthy gentleman toying with street-car advertising. And so firmly did they lodge their men in office that it has taken almost a revolution on the part of the respectable citizens to get them out, and the work is not yet done. Can any one recall, in tale or history, an incident so extraordinary, so picturesque, so opposed to all the probabilities of modern life? We doubt if any modern author would have ventured before now to make a novel out of it or put it on the stage. Up to the present the escape of such men without punishment would have been considered a good Gaboriau story; but their leisurely departure with riches and éclat, leaving "bye-byes" with the newspaper reporters, belongs to the region of Oriental romance, to the land of Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves.

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GEN. WALKER ON BIMETALLISM.

GEN. FRANCIS A. WALKER made a speech on international bimetallism at Springfield last week. He began by referring to the prejudices and prepossessions in the public mind created by a hostile press, which he would endeavor to remove by an exposition of facts. Now we do not consider academic discussions of this sort particularly harmful, but we like to see facts stated correctly, and for this reason we shall examine some of those which Gen. Walker attempted to set before his audience at Springfield.

His first proposition was that the bimetallists are not innovators, but are merely seeking a return to the old ways. In order to show this he said:

> "In 1867, the first gold monometallist conference was held in Paris. That body, in perfectly cold blood, then and there declared that gold monometallism ought by contrivance, by authority of law, by act of government, to be imposed upon the nations which had immemorially down to that time used silver as their sole money of full value. Clearly, if there ever was a case of tinkering with the currency, it was that of the conference of 1867."

What is meant by voting "in perfectly cold blood" for the single gold standard? That phrase implies premeditation, if not malice also. That Gen. Walker meant to imply premeditation is evident from all that he says about the conference of 1867, *i. e.*, a preconceived purpose to establish gold monometallism. This is exactly contrary to the facts. The conference of 1867 was not called with any design of establishing the gold standard more than the silver standard, but simply to agree upon an international coin of some metal. As the French minister of foreign affairs said at the opening session, the object in view was "to substitute, instead of the variety of monetary types actually in use, metallic coins struck in accordance with uniform regulations and placed beyond any variations of exchange." If any inference might be drawn beforehand as to the cold-bloodedness of the delegates and their previous intention to adopt one metal, such inference must have been favorable to silver, since there were only three gold-standard countries, out of eighteen, represented. These were Great Britain, Portugal, and Turkey. All the rest were either bimetallic or silver-standard countries.

The proceedings of the conference show at every step an entire lack of premeditation. Even M. de Parieu, the president of the conference, who afterwards became the champion of the gold standard in France, was so much in doubt that, after silver had been rejected unanimously as the material of the proposed international coin, he suggested that each state should be at liberty to keep the silver standard temporarily, and the resolution in favor of gold was adopted with this amendment, and with only one dissenting vote, that of Holland.

The next statement of any importance in Gen. Walker's discourse is the following:

> "The United States did, indeed, at the very beginning of our government, institute a mint ratio between the two metals, and has, with only a short interval, continued that system down to the present time. But, instead of loyally accepting the European ratio, our fathers purposely set the ratio away from that which prevailed elsewhere. The market value of the two metals being at the time about 15½ to 1, the first Congress established our ratio at 15 to 1. The result of this was that we were all the time pulling away from those with whom we should have been pulling in concert."

This is in direct conflict with Hamilton's report on the Mint, in 1792, which formed the basis of our ratio of 15 to 1. It is also in conflict with the facts. The Spanish milled dollar was our money of account. It had been declared such by the Congress of the Confederation in 1785. Hamilton said that 24 75-100 grains of gold was the equivalent of this dollar in the American market, and that the dollar itself contained 371 grains of pure silver, on the average. This was the Spanish dollar in actual circulation, being somewhat abraded. Now 371 25-100 grains, the chosen weight of pure metal in the silver dollar, was exactly fifteen times 24 75-100 grains. Consequently a ratio of 15 to 1 was the market ratio here, within a very minute fraction. But Hamilton was not satisfied with this. He scraped together all the information he could get from other countries, and came to the conclusion, upon the best evidence obtainable, that 15 to 1 was the market ratio in Europe also.

Now, what does Gen. Walker mean by saying that "instead of loyally accepting the European ratio, our fathers *purposely* set the ratio away from that which prevailed elsewhere"? What was the European ratio? A report made to the French National Assembly by a monetary commission in 1790, published by our Government with the proceedings of the monetary conference of 1878 (of which Gen. Walker was a member), gives eleven different ratios prevailing in Europe at that time in addition to that of France. The French ratio was 15½, established by Calonne in 1785, but the great question, at the time when Hamilton wrote, was whether it should be changed or not. Calonne himself said that the ratio of 15½ was too high, but that he had chosen it because he had observed that gold had an advancing tendency, and he believed that 15½ would become the market ratio in a few years. The truth is, that there was no "European ratio" at that time, and that if Hamilton had looked to France to find out what her ratio was going to be, he could have learned nothing at that time, because the French themselves did not know, and did not settle the question till ten years later. It follows that our fathers did not "purposely set the ratio away from that which prevailed elsewhere." If they had desired "loyally" to accept the European ratio, they could not have found any such ratio, because it did not exist. They chose a legal ratio as close to the market ratio as possible.

We will now consider a paragraph or two in Gen. Walker's speech which involve the reasoning faculty merely. Speaking of the want of a par of exchange between gold-using countries and silver-using countries, and the losses consequent thereon, he says: "It is a cause which is entirely adequate to explain the frightful series of panics, commercial disasters, and crises which have taken place during the past twenty years." Gen. Walker is a writer of text-books on political economy. He knows the importance of explaining in clear language the processes by which economic effects are produced by their causes, especially when he is talking to laymen. His assertion is that one particular cause is sufficient to account for all the panics and crises that have taken place in the past twenty years, namely, the fluctuations of exchange between gold countries and silver countries. This would include the Australian crisis of 1893, as well as our own crisis of that year, although the dealings of Australia and America with silver-using countries were never before alluded to, so far as we can now recall, by any human being as contributing causes. We are not now controverting Gen. Walker's assertion, but merely pointing out that when a teacher of political economy makes sweeping statements of this kind, he is bound to show some chain between the cause and the effect.

One more point is all that our space permits us to examine. Gen. Walker says:

> "The prepossession of the public mind in America as to the impotence of law in affecting values has been derived partly from the experience of our Revolutionary Congress, and partly from our observation, in our own day, regarding the greenback era. So that many people have come to say, thoughtlessly, that law is impotent to affect values. If, indeed, law is impotent to affect values, why was it that all the protectionists urged the passage of the McKinley act? If law is impotent to affect values, why was it that all the free-traders and revenue-reformers protested against that act and could not rest until it had been repealed?"

When people who are discussing the silver question say that "the law is impotent to affect values," they mean that the law cannot impart *value*—that is, purchasing power—to a metal, either silver or gold. If the law cannot affect values, says General Walker, why did the protectionists want the McKinley tariff? Evidently because they believed that it would raise the *prices* of those goods on which an increased duty was laid. The two things are not analogous. A true analogy would be between a tariff on foreign goods and a tax on silver mines sufficient to curtail the production and cause an artificial scarcity and a higher price. If it is Gen. Walker's meaning that the law can create a demand for silver, and thus increase its purchasing power, that is the very thing that we take leave to deny. Such a law can cheat creditors and produce a brief speculative demand for silver, but, after business has adjusted itself to the change, the law will be as impotent to create values as the fiat of King Canute was to hold back the tides. If such a

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law can create values, is there any limit to them, and why should there be any?

THE RIGHT TO LABOR.

We have obtained briefs and the judge's opinion in the case of Tilt vs. Illinois, which declared unconstitutional the eight-hour law of June 17, 1893. Section 5 contained the gist of this statute, and was worded as follows: "No female shall be employed in any factory or workshop more than eight hours in any one day, or forty-eight hours in any one week." The context of the other sections seemed to indicate that the restrictions of the statute were limited to factories or workshops, or to dwelling-houses or other places where the inmates were engaged in the manufacture of wearing apparel, artificial flowers, or cigars. The decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois, by Judge Magruder, intimated its opinion that if section 5 was to be construed as applying to such occupations only, it would be unconstitutional also for the reason that it effected class legislation. But the court's opinion does not proceed mainly on this narrow view, but expressly decides that a woman is a citizen, and that the right of a citizen to make his or her own contract for labor or services is part of the protection of liberty and property guaranteed by the fourteenth amendment of the federal Constitution, by section 1977 of the revised statutes of the United States, and by the Constitution of Illinois, article 2, section 1. The court also decides that the statute is not within the police powers of the Legislature, for the reason that it is not shown that it was passed with any sanitary purpose, and that, the occupations engaged in being expressly lawful for women, the hours of each day which they should devote to such work could not be limited by statute. The court intimates that had the inhibition of the statute extended to minors only, it might, under the police powers, have been sustained.

In all of the individual cases the employers were fined under the penal section of the statute for employing women, of whom all but one were over age, for more than the time allowed. The statute is a substantial copy of that existing in all the New England States, New York, and many other States. It does not in terms prohibit a contract by a woman and her employer to labor more than eight hours a day, but imposes a penalty upon any person or corporation failing to comply with any provision of the act, which would, of course, include the employee as well as the employer.

The appellant's counsel contended, in the main, that the act places unwarranted restrictions upon the individual's right to contract, citing the above-mentioned provisions of the State and federal constitutions, the dissenting opinions of Justices Bradley and Swayne in the famous slaughter-house cases, and the various decisions in State supreme courts which have declared unconstitutional laws forbidding payment by employers in goods or commodities other than lawful money; laws prohibiting the manufacture of cigars in tenement-houses; laws prohibiting the sale or disposal of articles with a gift or reward; laws prohibiting employers from imposing a wage penalty for imperfect weaving; laws prohibiting the screening of coal before the miners are paid; laws providing for a weekly payment of wages by corporations; laws requiring contractors with a city to adopt the eight-hour day for their labor, and laws forbidding or regulating special occupations.

The counsel then went on to a consideration of the police argument, claiming that, however broad and extensive, it is not above the Constitution, and citing a line of decisions to the effect that while the Legislature might determine what laws and regulations are needed to protect the public health and secure the public comfort and safety, and their discretion in this particular is not subject to review by the courts, yet such laws must have some relation to these ends, and that, particularly, one sex could not be disqualified from any occupation, however objectionable. The sole case to the contrary—the Massachusetts case of Commonwealth vs. Hamilton Manufacturing Company, 120 Mass., 383—was disapproved of by both the counsel and the court, unless it can be justified by the peculiar provision of the Massachusetts Constitution, article 4, chapter 1, section 1, which provides that "the Legislature may make . . . all manner of wholesome and reasonable orders, laws, statutes, and ordinances, . . . either with penalties or without, so as the same be not repugnant or contrary to this Constitution, as they shall judge to be for the good and welfare of this commonwealth, and for the government and order thereof, and of the subjects of the same."

Judge Magruder, in his opinion, cited many of the cases in the brief for plaintiffs in error, and concluded that the act was unconstitutional both as being applied to certain occupations and not to others, and upon the general ground. He said:

"Aside from its partial and discriminating character, this enactment is a purely arbitrary restriction upon the fundamental right of the citizen to control his or her own time and faculties. It substitutes the judgment of the Legislature for the judgment of the employer and employee in a matter about which they are competent to agree with each other. It assumes to dictate to what extent the capacity to labor may be exercised by the employee, and takes away the right of private judgment as to the amount and duration of the labor to be put forth in a specific period. Where the Legislature thus undertakes to impose an unreasonable and unnecessary burden upon any one citizen or class of citizens, it transcends the authority intrusted to it of the Constitution, even though it imposes the same burden upon all other citizens or classes of citizens. General laws may be as tyrannical as partial laws. A distinguished writer on constitutional limitations has said that general rules may sometimes be as obnoxious as special, if they operate to deprive individual citizens of vested rights, and that, while every man has a right to require that his own controversies shall be judged by the same rules which are applied in the controversies of his neighbors, the whole community is also entitled, at all times, to demand the protection of the ancient principles which shield private rights against arbitrary interference, even though such interference may be under a rule impartial in its operation.

"Liberty, as has already been stated, includes the right to make contracts, as well with reference to the amount and duration of labor to be performed as concerning any other local matter. Hence the right to make contracts is an inherent and inalienable one, and any attempt to unreasonably abridge it is opposed to the Constitution."

The court also cited the recent case of the Supreme Court of Nebraska in which an opinion filed June 6, 1894, held the general eight-hour law of that State unconstitutional, although this law was in general operation throughout the State as to both sexes, and all classes of laborers except agricultural and domestic. This decision in Nebraska is even more noteworthy than the one we are considering, inasmuch as it was a general law limiting the hours of labor, and, so far as we are informed, the first that has been passed in the United States which applied to men as well as women or minors, and undertook expressly to deny the right of contract for a longer day than the law prescribed.

The court gave much attention to the "police power" argument, but affirmed the principle that the sanitary intent of the statute must be manifest and direct to bring it within this exemption, and that in this act "it is not the nature of the things done, but the sex of the persons doing them," which is made the basis of the claim that the act is a measure for the promotion of the public health.

Judge Magruder expressly disapproves of the doctrine of the Massachusetts case of Commonwealth vs. Hamilton Manufacturing Company, and it is noteworthy that the great questions involved in this decision should first arise in Western States, like Nebraska and Illinois, and not in Massachusetts, and that these Western courts should be the first in our country to re-pronounce boldly and clearly that old English principle which sets the freedom of the citizen above State tutelage, even when the latter presents itself under the new mask of the labor vote, with the old excuse that it is all for his own good.

THE SOLDIER CASTE.

In the United States District Court in Boston on March 26, John McDonough was sentenced by Judge Nelson to five years in the state's prison. He had been assistant superintendent of the delivery department in the post-office, and had pleaded guilty to the embezzlement of a letter. Before the sentence was passed, the counsel for the prisoner asked for leniency from the court, on the ground that he had been a gallant soldier in the late war, where he had attained the rank of major, and that he had borne a good character in the post-office up to the date of his crime. In case the sentence of five years was adhered to, it was asked that he be sent to

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the house of correction instead of the state's prison. The argument of the district attorney, in which the court appeared fully to concur, is worth noting:

"He said he thought, like Col. Walker, that one who had honorably served his country on the battlefield should be held in the highest esteem by all citizens. But here was a man who had charge of all the carriers in the Boston post-office, who had assisted the authorities to detect the stealings of those under him and send them to state prison. He therefore thought that the defendant deserved only little pity at the hands of the court."

This case raises squarely an issue which has really, though not avowedly, been before the people of this country for some time. The District Court decided it in the only way which the safety of the citizens will allow. That issue is: Shall the war record of a distinguished soldier, which, of course, ended at least thirty years ago, exempt him in any and all cases, even that of detected crime of the most serious character, from treatment to which any other citizen, however respected in the community, and however well conducted except for this crime, would be subjected? Within the last ten years in Massachusetts, citizens of what is called high social position, and supposed to be beyond suspicion, have received long sentences to the state's prison for forgery or embezzlement. The good standing in which they had been up to the hour of detection, was not allowed for a moment to weigh in their favor, it being held of paramount necessity that those in less favored walks of life should see that there was not one law for the rich and another for the poor; and that, too, although the same sentence would cause treble suffering to the man of culture and delicacy. In the case of McDonough the court readily admitted the statement of his counsel that he had maintained a good character up to the embezzlement, in which he had been detected by identically the same means which he had assisted in using to detect and sentence subordinates in his department; but that could not influence the judgment, nor did his counsel expect it to. He rested his whole plea on the "war record."

It is, of course, well known that, from the moment the war ended till this day, its veterans have had a great advantage in obtaining posts of trust, public or private, over all civilians of their own generation and the next. Lucrative places have been vacated for them; others have been made for them; they have been retained in service when other men would undoubtedly have been retired. They have been exempted from the workings of the civil-service commissions, and every Government office at this moment has veterans in it who are past work yet defy any power to remove them. This has been maintained more than once on the floor of Congress to be all right; it is maintained that there is no limit to the rewards to which "the boys in blue" are entitled. One of their great champions in the last session raised the suggestion that there must be "light work" in various departments for which old soldiers might be retained when obviously useless in average work. But there can be no question that, as far as the country owes the veterans a reward in the way of official position, whether by appointing or retaining, she has paid it over and over again.

But in return for all this it is fair to expect at least a full standard of honor and honesty from the old soldier, and to hold him to the strictest fidelity—requiring much, since much was given; yet any such suggestion is loudly resented by his champions. It is usual for them to deny indignantly that there are such things as frauds in the pension roll, because that charge "belittles the character of the old soldier." In other words, an old soldier belongs to a superior caste—he is a *Kshatriya*, except that whereas the Brahminical system puts the soldier caste only second, below the priests, our system makes him distinctly first. He is to have applied to him a different rating. He must be assumed to possess all the virtues. In Plato's way of stating it in the 'Republic,' he is composed of purer metal. He is better than the rest of us because he fought. And now it is sought to push the principle one step further, and declare that when actually detected in crime, a crime tending to produce a sense of insecurity in the entire machinery of government, which comes far nearer to the people in the post-office than in any other of its operations, he must be excused from the judgment which the law has fixed for all, on the ground of what happened a generation ago.

We have no wish to carry out this idea into tedious and obvious detail. It is enough to state it as it is, and let the country see where the war spirit, which is threatening to turn the whole land upside down, will run to if unchecked. To the just punishment which the court awarded to Major McDonough we would not add one iota by a sneer or a reproach. So far from that, we would urge that in any such case there has been a terrible temptation thrust in the way of any veteran by the senseless temper, so common in the community, which encourages an old soldier to conceive that he is not to be judged as other men are, and that whereas the old moralists believed that service in war almost certainly strained the sense of right and wrong, we are, in this end of the nineteenth century, to hold that our veterans must be regarded as so stainless that they may expect leniency if they break their trust which no civilian, whatever his past life, could hope for an instant to receive. But let us be thankful that the United States Court has shown its ancient firmness and wisdom.

GOVERNMENT BY INJUNCTION.

THE Debs case has at last come before the Supreme Court. The chief question raised in it is, whether a man can be punished for a contempt by an equity judge for disobeying an injunction which restrains him from committing common-law crimes. We commented a year ago on the extraordinary use which many of the United States judges were making of their equity powers in treating the obstruction of traffic, attacks on railroad employees, and destruction of property as simply disobedience to the orders of the court. Men were, therefore, punished not for assault and battery, or riot, but for contempt of court, and, of course, necessarily deprived of the benefit of trial by jury. During the Chicago riots this assumption of criminal jurisdiction by the Court of Chancery reached its extreme limits. Mr. F. J. Stimson of Boston, the well-known legal writer, has prepared a monograph on the subject, which sets out in a striking manner the anomalies of the new system of criminal administration. He says:

"We have seen courts of equity invoked in a private law suit between individuals or corporations, to restrain not alone the other party to the suit, but all the world, with or without actual notice of a court order or injunction, not only from interference with property which is the subject of the suit, but from committing, or conspiring to commit, or aiding or advising others to commit, acts which are criminal acts, criminal at common law, or made so by recent acts of Congress, known as the anti-Trust law, or the inter-state commerce law. We have seen more. We have seen persons committing, or about to commit, such acts, arrested by the civil courts, deprived of their liberty, and punished by imprisonment, and this, as in the Debs case and others, after the emergency which made the excuse for this protective jurisdiction has long gone by. And we have seen them so punished without the usual safeguards of liberty afforded by the criminal law, without indictment, without the right to counsel, without being confronted with witnesses, without trial by jury, and sentenced at the discretion of the judge. We have seen more. We have seen courts, not content with ordering all the world what not to do, order at a word the ten or twenty thousand employees of a railroad system to carry out, each and every, the definite or indefinite duties of their employment, as directed by their superior officers, or by the receiver of the court itself; so that for any failure or omission or merely negative act on their part, they may be summarily brought into court and punished then and there, as the court may find leisure to sentence or its attorneys to file complaints."

This extraordinary exercise of equity power was justified by Judge Ross, on the ground that it is "the proud boast of equity, *ubi jus, ibi remedium.*" Last summer things went still further. The attorney-general of the United States sued out injunctions in nearly every large city west of the Alleghanies; injunction writs covered the sides of cars; deputy marshals and federal soldiers patrolled railway yards; chancery process was executed by bullets and bayonets. Equity jurisdiction has passed from the theory of "public rights" to political prerogatives. All these things have grown out of the anti-Trust law and the inter-state commerce law. The question whether under these powers thus claimed, a man can be sentenced to a long term of imprisonment by a single judge, sitting without a jury and without indictment, is the question now before the Supreme Court in the Debs case.

There is no doubt that the injunction

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served a very useful purpose at the time. It became, in fact, a kind of substitute for martial law. Local government at the West had utterly broken down. The Governor and sheriffs were afraid or unwilling to protect property and arrest rioters. What was to be done in such cases nobody knew until the President intervened. So that the judges really did the community a good turn in converting contempt of court into a special constable. But it would discredit us all greatly if such practices were allowed to continue. Mr. Stimson points out that they are, after all, only a revival of the old chancery jurisdiction of the middle ages, when the chancellor represented the king in person, and was constantly called in to prevent bold barons and other wrongdoers from "going for" their neighbors, and great men from oppressing the poor. We ought at this time of the day to be able to make the criminal law equal to all emergencies. For all that the Debs rioters did or tried to do, they were liable to indictment, trial, and sentence in the United States courts. And they are just the class of men on whom the effect of departure from the regular course of law is bad. They ought not to feel that they can drive society into unusual and abnormal courses for its protection against violence. The courts which try them should be courts organized for this very purpose. The processes by which they are tried and brought to justice should be the processes by which all crime is punished, and not crimes against railroads simply. There should be no interest surrounded in their eyes by special safeguards. They should always feel when they begin rioting in railroad stations that they are attacking not a particular corporation or trade, but society itself.

THE SPEAKERSHIP OF THE COMMONS.

LONDON, March 21, 1895.

IN the House of Commons the most engrossing topic is the approaching resignation of the Speaker. It was not intended to make the announcement till just before Easter. But the news came into the hands of the *Times*, and it was published prematurely. The chair is so admirably filled by Mr. Peel that it will be hard indeed to find a worthy successor. Mr. Peel was chosen by the House in 1884, after he had been for nearly twenty years a member of Parliament, respected, but wholly undistinguished, though he had filled for a short time one or two subordinate posts in the Government. A candidate is always proposed by the Government of the day, of course with very special regard to his acceptability to their own supporters and to the House generally. Mr. Gladstone's Government offered the nomination to at least two other members—the present Lord Chancellor and Mr. Goschen; and when he became at length the choice of the party, and was elected without opposition, Mr. Peel, who is the second son of Sir Robert Peel, probably owed something to the great parliamentary name which he had inherited. His lot fell on troubled times. Never before have there been so many organized groups or parties in the House. Never in living memory has party heat risen so high. It has been a period of transition during which a change in the rules of procedure, especially in the matter of the closure, has invested the Chair with new authority and delicate discretionary powers. Throughout this difficult time the Speaker, owing to remarkable gifts of character rather than to commanding intellectual power, has gradually gained an ascendancy over the House which is probably unprecedented, and is even exceeded by the esteem in which he is held in every quarter and by every member of the House.

The number of possible candidates whose names have been suggested by the press is extraordinarily large. They would make a numerous field for the Derby. Of course, most of them are rank outsiders, but the suggestion of their names has diffused a great deal of innocent happiness in many respectable families. At first there was a prevailing rumor that the Postmaster General, Mr. Arnold Morley, would be the Government candidate. He has many qualifications for a good speaker; but not the least of them, his comparative youth (for the duties of the Chair put a severe strain on the strongest man), perhaps diminished his chances. The situation changes from day to day. A few days ago the three favorites were Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, Mr. Courtney, and Sir Matthew White Ridley. Mr. Campbell-Bannerman could probably have had the post, if he desired it, with general assent and without opposition. As Secretary for War he is one of the best administrators in either house of Parliament. He is a member of long experience and genuine popularity, full of tact in the management of Parliamentary business, effective and conciliatory in debate. It is supposed, contrary to expectation, that if the duty were laid upon him, he would accept it, though he would exchange congenial duties, a high political position, and good prospects for the arduous and monotonous, though honorable and difficult, work of the Chair. But neither the Government nor the party can easily make up their minds to press this sacrifice upon him. It would mean the loss of one of the most useful front-bench men, not to speak of the loss of two seats on a division. It is understood to be now decided that he will not be a candidate.

Mr. Courtney, a Liberal-Unionist, has the advantage of several years' experience as chairman of committees and deputy speaker. He filled these offices with firmness and impartiality and marked ability. He is respected on all sides, and liked by those who know him. But, joined to the strength of his character, which could not be questioned, he has qualities which are not popular, and make many members hesitate to invite him to rule over them. Notwithstanding that, his chances would have been good, though the Liberal press has done him great disservice by trying to force him on the party. He was believed to be the choice favored by the Cabinet. But strong opposition was threatened, not only from the Conservative benches and a portion of the Liberals, but from his own Liberal-Unionist friends; and it is understood that Mr. Courtney would stand only if his nomination were likely to be met with general assent.

So far as politics is concerned, if the Liberals went outside their own party, their bias would be towards a Conservative. The Conservative candidate is Sir Matthew Ridley. In bearing, temper, and ability he is fully qualified. He has long experience of Parliament, and his reputation for capacity stands so high that it has often been matter of surprise to outsiders that he has not occupied a more prominent place when his party was in power. One reason certainly is that he takes no pains to assert himself or put himself in evidence. In fact, he is so little seen in the daily struggles of Parliamentary life that, while well known to be a capable man generally for the Speakership, he would, to a certain extent, be a dark horse. As a member said to-day, "Courtney would try to make business go, but I doubt whether Ridley would ever give the closure. But I may be wrong." The rank and file of the Liberal party are, however, not inclined to seek for a Speaker outside their own body. This reluctance has been increased by the taunt of weakness freely and imprudently made by the Tory press when Sir Matthew Ridley's competitors seemed one by one to be retiring. The Government will probably be pressed to nominate a Liberal candidate. The names just now most current are those of three eminent lawyers, the Attorney-General, the Solicitor-General, and Mr. Gully, Q. C.

Another public event of considerable importance has been the London County Council election. The Local Government act of 1888 established county councils for the first time in every part of England. The London Council has been from the first a very influential body. It represents a population, in a compact area, of four millions and a quarter—that is to say, a number not far short of the population of Ireland, and rather exceeding that of Scotland. The elections are triennial. There are 118 elected members and twenty aldermen, who are coöpted for six years, half retiring at each election. The powers of the Council are in many directions considerable, and in London its proceedings at times attract quite as much attention as those of Parliament. Lord Rosebery has twice been the chairman, and not a few other public men of note are members. There have always naturally been within the Council a more conservative and a more forward party, known as Moderates and Progressives. At the last election in 1892, the Progressives had an overwhelming victory, which gave them a majority of more than two to one. The dividing line does not correspond with that which separates the political parties. A Moderate is likely to be a Conservative, a Progressive is likely to be a Liberal. But in politics the metropolis has long been a Conservative stronghold, and only a few months after the great Progressive victory in 1892, the general election proved that London had not become Liberal, though the Liberal position was substantially improved.

During the past three years the Progressive majority has been unceasingly active. It has, among other things, acquired a large number of open spaces for the public, it has built the town bridge, it has bought up the tramways, it has become a large direct employer of labor, and it has set on foot a number of schemes of reform, such as the acquisition of the rights of the water companies, and street-improvement schemes involving the principle of betterment, for all which Parliamentary sanction was required. In these schemes, speaking generally, the Council has been supported by the Liberal majority in the House of Commons, and opposed, often successfully, by the Conservatives and the House of Lords. At the recent election the pendulum has swung back again. Progressives and Moderates are returned in nearly equal numbers, the former retaining a very small majority through that portion of the Aldermen who remain in office for another three years. The contest excited great interest, and the result, so different from that of 1892, is prob-

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ably due to several causes. On this occasion the battle was fought more upon political lines than before. Therefore the tendency has been for the representation to approximate to the Parliamentary representation. Another potent cause has been the question of rates. The great improvements effected by the late Council have cost money; the rates have been slightly raised. This is a question on which the small householder is extremely sensitive, and it lends itself to catchpenny misrepresentation. Placards were to be seen of this tenor: "Workingmen, are you aware that the expiring Council has spent £1,000 a day of your hard-earned money more than their predecessor?" Another cause of some unpopularity has doubtless been the increased stringency in the supervision of music-halls and similar places of amusement. And last, but not least, some of the most active members of the predominant party were accustomed to found themselves on principles with respect to taxation and similar subjects which were sometimes stated with a breadth and crudeness that went beyond the necessity of the administrative objects which they had in view, and awakened the widespread distrust which exists, even among the masses, of revolutionary or socialistic proposals.

The work of Parliament proceeds somewhat slowly. The Government are fighting against time. The dissolution can hardly be deferred beyond the close of the present session, including, probably enough, if there is no accident, an autumn session; and as the fruit of their labors in that time it is important for them to show substantial results. It is the object of the Opposition to disappoint this hope. Their policy is the Oriental policy of delay. The Government are pledged to do all they can to pass three measures more or less difficult and portentous—viz., disestablishment of the Church in Wales, the Irish Land bill, and a liquor bill called the Local Veto bill. To all these measures the Tories are on principle opposed. But in each case there is a possibility of some defection. Most of the Liberal-Unionists are deeply pledged to disestablishment in Wales. Mr. Chamberlain wrote quite recently that, in his opinion, it must come. But he has explained that the letter written to the editor of a newspaper was private, and those scruples may be got over. An Ulster cave, led by Mr. Russell, threatens to support the Irish bill, which, in the matter of the evicted tenants, is much less drastic than the bill of last year. The temperance party has also many zealous adherents on the Opposition benches, but they have always fallen into line with their political friends.

According to the theory of the work of Parliament now favored by the Opposition, even one of these bills might be sufficient for the task of a session. Accordingly, contrary to precedent, the first reading in the case of the two bills already introduced was made the occasion of a long debate, and the second reading will be protracted as long as is found possible. But these bills are not the only occupation of the Government, and their passing is not the only result which the Opposition is desirous to prevent. There are several bills, two especially, with regard to which the spoken pledges of the Government are not so emphatic, but which are intended to meet a want in the country quite as urgent as those already mentioned. I refer to the Home Secretary's Factories and Workshops bill, and the Trades Disputes Conciliation bill, introduced by the President of the Board of Trade. The latter subject is in this country a most urgent one, and, as I dare say you know in America, an extremely difficult one. Mr. Bryce's bill proposes to give the Board of Trade a certain power of intervention with a view to bring about conciliation. It is a modest and experimental proposal. Neither of these bills could be opposed on principle, however much they might be susceptible of amendment. But the Opposition, I may say avowedly, are not willing to allow the Government to have the credit of passing non-contentious bills, except on the condition of their dropping the contentious bills. Hence the necessary business of supply has been unduly prolonged. In the discussions of it, the most interesting topic has been the large increase of the navy, involving a heavy expense, which is recognized by the nation, in spite of the earnest protests of some sincere men, as indispensable for the defence of the country. Probably the Opposition will be successful in preventing the Government from getting a second reading of any of their bills before Easter, except the Welsh Disestablishment bill.

C. D.

A GRAND OLD MAN.

MANTUA, March 16, 1895.

ON the 11th inst., at the age of ninety-one, Cesare Cantù expired painlessly and peacefully, "in the full and certain hope of a joyful resurrection." This greatest of Italian historians, whose works far exceed in number those of Tiraboschi and Muratori, was, from his boyhood to his death, a firm, devout believer, unassailed by doubt, supported throughout a life of tribulation by a profound sense of duty "here below," an unalterable faith in immortality, the continuation of existence in the "world beyond the grave." This rare, we may say unique, consistency of his religious sentiments never clashed with, nay, intensified, his patriotism, his aspirations for an Italy great, good, and true; but as his ideal differed from that of the majority (he being a federal republican, and a champion, as long as there seemed a possibility, of an Italian federation, with the Pope for supreme chief), the fickle, envious turncoats of several generations embittered his life with calumnies, defrauding him at every step of his rightful place in the new Italy, to whose independence and intellectual progress he had so largely contributed. Plagiarists and paste-and-scissors compilers pilfered his works, never naming the author; Carducci the great, Saffi the good, alone placing him on his rightful pedestal, and frankly acknowledging their debt and the debt of three generations to the modest, earnest, indefatigable Lombard. Side by side with the telegrams of the Pope, the King, the exiles of Trieste, is the following:

"The deputation of the Historical Society of the Romagna receives with grief the tidings of the death of the great worker whose intellect and sentiment comprehended universal history and the history of the Italian people.

"(Signed) GIOSUÈ CARDUCCI, President."

Cesare Cantù came of an old family of Brivio, on the Adda, impoverished at the time (1807) of the birth of this, the eldest of ten children. Cesare was destined for the priesthood; and thus obtained gratuitous education at Milan. At the age of eighteen, not feeling inclined to the sacred calling, he doffed the garb of the seminary and obtained the post of professor of grammar in the Lyceum of Sondrio; being transferred later to Como and thence to Milan. His father dying in 1827, he became the sole supporter of his mother, brothers, and sisters, maintaining and educating them with the proceeds of his teachings and pen. "Algiso and the Lombard League," dedicated to the youth of Lombardy, lovers of their birthplace, his first attempt in verse, was reviewed by the *Biblioteca Italiana* as "a work of no ordinary writer." Then of his 'History of Como,' Tommaseo, in the *Antologia*, wrote: "It would be difficult among municipal chronicles to find a history as interesting or as sapient. The precision of the facts, the rapidity and lucidity of the narrative, the simple morality, confer on the author and his country a title of honor."

Cantù, an ardent admirer of Manzoni, was, with Carlo Cattaneo and Giuseppe Ferrari, a disciple of Romagnosi, forbidden by Austria to teach even in private. The political ideal of these studious and patriotic youths was an Italian federation of states, free to follow and develop the special tendencies of each region, united as an independent nation. Cantù was the beloved disciple of the great philosopher, who intrusted him with the preparation of the statistics to be submitted to the new federation. Cantù's first public peccadillo was the epitaph on Ciro Menotti, beguiled, betrayed, arrested by the Duke of Modena, deserted by the French Liberals, faintly supported by the Revolutionists, who trusted to the proclaimed doctrine of non-intervention rather than to the watchword, "Who would be free, himself must strike the blow." I have seen the original of which I give a literal translation, with Cantù's note, "For this I was prosecuted:"

"When Austrian bayonets, the betrayal of ill-redeemed Frenchmen, extinguished the spark of liberty, Ciro Menotti of Modena, martyr to Italian aspirations, fell a victim to the revenge of the Phalaris of Este in May, 1831. May his blood fructify glory and vengeance. Let us treasure his last words on the scaffold: '*Italians, put not your faith in foreigners!*'"

Towards the end of 1832, after the execution by Charles Albert of the members of the Young Italy Association, and the failure of the Savoy expedition, the unitarian doctrines of Mazzini spread rapidly in Lombardy, where it became evident to the youths impatient of Austrian rule that *partial, regional* attempts were fruitless; and the Government, permeating the province with spies, made numerous arrests. The trials were conducted by Zaiotti, a renegade of Trento, a brilliant writer who was especially jealous of Cantù's increasing literary fame, and who, on the publication of the brilliant work on Parini, exclaimed, "Cantù advances two steps to glory, three to the gallows." The success of his essays on "Lord Byron," "Victor Hugo and Romanticism," on "German Literature," intensified Zaiotti's envy. Cantù was never a member of Young Italy, but he was the confidant of Albera and of Balzetti, who, on the eve of his flight, consigned to him the residue of the funds for propaganda—45 lire. On November 11, 1833, he was arrested during his lecture at the Liceo, and immured in the prison in the Convent of Santa Margherita described by Silvio Pellico—"this," wrote Mazzini, "owing to the offended vanity of the Tyrolese spy Zaiotti, jealous of the popularity of Cantù, the historian, with the youth of Lombardy." Interrogated, menaced, deprived of books and pen, he maintained an absolute silence, imitated alone, in this, by Gabriele Rosa—so that, though the secrets of Romagnosi and the federalists, as well as of the unitarians, were in his keeping, no one was compromised.

To beguile the time and still the moral torture of the thought of his "children," as he called the nine brothers and sisters dependent

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upon him, he wrote with a toothpick and candle-smoke on the back of a map and scraps of paper his 'Margherita Pusterla.' In this romance, considering the times and circumstances, the following prayer which he had taught to his own little sisters, is touching in its simple faith and patriotism:

"Kind Jesus, who didst love thy country even though ungrateful, and didst weep, foreseeing the dangers that menaced her, watch compassionately over mine, alleviate its sufferings, convert those who by fraud and violence oppress it, strengthen our faith in well-doing, and help me to become an honest, honorable, industrious citizen."

Liberated at the end of a year because there was no *proof* of his high treason, Cantù was deprived of his professorship, and he and his family would have been reduced to extremities had he not encountered a Turin publisher who was in search of a writer of general history. A curious contract was made, to be rescinded if the work should not take the public taste; but of the first volume 60,000 copies were sold. The publisher made a small fortune; Cantù realized sufficient to maintain his family with decency, give a dowry to his sisters, and a thorough education to all his brothers. This 'Storia Universale' has gone through 40 editions, and been translated into French and German. The 'History of a Hundred Years' and the 'Story of the Struggles for Italian Independence (*Cronistoria*)' form the vade-mecum of all students of these eventful years.

When, in 1847, the advent of Pio Nono, the reforming Pope, revived the hopes of independence, Cantù was foremost among the enthusiasts. At the Scientific Congress of Milan, at the Congress of Marseilles, and above all at Venice, his word, in the language of Ficquelmont, "was the match that lighted the revolutionary torch." For these speeches he was admonished by the police, and on the 21st of January the Archduke Raynier ordered Spaur, the Governor of Lombardy, to send on the same day four "politically dangerous citizens under strong escort to Laybach." Cantù, warned by a friend, escaped into Piedmont, returning to Milan just as the unarmed populace had driven out the Austrians and Venice had effected her bloodless revolution. He, with all the Liberals, disapproved the fusion willed by the Moderates; but when, the royal army defeated, the King, Charles Albert, entered Milan and the provisional Government resigned, Cantù, Pompeo Litta, and Anelli, all celebrated writers, formed a committee of defence, and protected the King's retreat; then, with 100,000 Milanese, emigrated to Piedmont, there to prepare the second war.

When, in 1849, Austria granted an amnesty, Cantù was excluded; later, his presence was tolerated under strict surveillance, and he continued his literary pursuits, though many of his books were prohibited by the Censor. And now we come to the epoch in his life most bitterly censured by his enemies. The Archduke Maximilian arrived in Milan in 1847, with the mission, it was rumored, of converting Venetian Lombardy into an independent kingdom, and one of his first proposed reforms was to render public instruction independent of the Austrian authorities and place it under the tutorship of the Lombard Institute. Of this Cantù was secretary. The Archduke sent for him, and he consented to compile the programme. This was his crime; it was said that he had been paid by Maximilian, pensioned, and decorated with the insignia of the iron crown by Austria. Baseless falsehoods. His only decoration was given by Charles Albert. But "mud sticks," and the calumny was repeated in 1860 by Finzi, the Mantuan, when Cantù was elected Deputy for San Salvatore and later for Caprino. The fact that he entered Parliament and took the oath to the King and Constitution is a proof that, though ever a devout Catholic and an opponent of all the laws which limited the Pope's spiritual power or sequestrated ecclesiastical property, he yet accepted Monarchy and Unity, retaining his predilections for federal institutions. His patriotism and literary merits, his whole life spent in the service of his country, entitled him to a seat in the Senate; but neither the Moderates nor the Liberals offered him this (I believe) desired honor. Some objected to his admission (the sole layman) to the Œcumenical Council, his devotion to Pio Nono, his admiration of Leo XIII.; "and yet," he answered, "I have never sought for or received aught from any pontiff, and from the present one I have never asked for anything but his blessing, and I trust that he will send me from my deathbed to the other world comforted by his benediction." Even the pension which, as a one-time professor under Austria dismissed for political motives, was his due in virtue of a law passed by Victor Emanuel, and the medal of 1862 for civic valor, were grudgingly granted. He was deprived of the secretaryship of the Lombard Institute, and only from the sheer impossibility of denying some recognition of his merit was he appointed head of the State Archives of Lombardy.

This was fortunate, for when the Austrians quitted and the Piedmontese entered, this precious deposit of Lombard history was pilfered and despoiled; whole series of documents between the years 1844 and 1848 are missing. Some of them were recovered from bookstalls and even grocers' shops, where they were used as waste paper, by Cantù himself, who set to work on a public and private catalogue. In 1886, when at work on the life of Mazzini, I was introduced to the illustrious old man, and was privileged for a month to work in his own study and to use his private catalogue. To this kindness I owe the numerous documents published in that biography and in later works. Seeing the amount of evidence there collected that shows, in the *procès-verbal* of the prisoners' answers to their judges and in their confrontations one with another, the weakness of this, the retractation of that accused, during the trials of '21, '33, and '53, it says much for the generosity and magnanimity of Cantù that in none of his answers to calumny or to his detractors (many of whom were the weak-kneed culprits who afterwards traded on their patriotism) did he ever make use of the knowledge thus acquired. Traitors to Italy, spies, provocative agents he denounced freely, but spared all whose spirit was willing but whose flesh was weak; and in allowing me to peruse the documents, he made it a question of honor that I would submit to him all notes or extracts.

There he worked from ten to three, never doing a line of his own literary work, being, as he said, "paid for his time by the State." Sometimes a date or a document would awaken "a reminiscence," of the arrests of 1821, of the contempt of the Milanese for the Austrians, of the delirium of the Moderates for the fusion; and then one listened with bated breath to his rapid, pithy sketches of this scene, of that episode. Among my treasures I reckon his 'Cronistoria,' his gift with his autograph, and a rare pamphlet on the great trial of Mantua. Outside his "workshop," and in his modest but comfortable home in Via Morigi, where he died, he was a different man; bright, genial, courteous, delighting in the society of children and ladies. His receptions were attended by the élite of Milan and by distinguished foreigners; every guest was called on to recite from memory some verse or extract from foreign or Italian authors: Mazzini or Gioberti, Manzoni or Carducci—the choice was free; vocal or instrumental music varying the entertainment. Children adored him and were his tyrants; on all his birthdays, flowers and gifts from loving needles filled his rooms, the children recited their poems or performed childish plays, and the older he grew, the more he clung to their presence.

Some real satisfactions were his. In 1883 he was presented with a gold medal by his world-wide admirers. On one side is his portrait, on the other the inscription:

Historicorum Italorum
sui temporis
clarissimo
Anno MDCCCLXXXIII.

At the presentation were assembled the authorities of the State, the province, the commune; representatives of Italian, French, German, and English scientific institutes; workmen's societies, and crowds of admirers and lovers—of Cantù, not of his all too lately recognized greatness. Then a marble medallion was sculptured for the balcony leading to the Archives:

To Cesare Cantù, in his lifetime,
Anno 1883;

while his fellow-citizens of Brivio affixed another medallion to the house where he was born. He was then nearly eighty years of age, yet had the courage to thoroughly revise and augment his Universal History. Rising at dawn and working uninterruptedly for eight hours every day save Sundays; of simple, temperate habits, a tenacious memory, and an extraordinary power of concentration, one can understand the amount of manuscript produced, yet still the mere list of his books is amazing. His last published work is the correspondence of the diplomats of the Italian Republic and the Kingdom of Italy (Napoleonic period); and the Annals of Manin. Only lately, suffering from rheumatism, did he use an amanuensis. His last unfinished work is a romance, which is in reality an autobiography; and just before his last illness he said to a friend, "Some one else will finish it."

His end came gently; worn-out nature sank to rest. Cantù to the last retained clear consciousness, was comforted with the Pope's benediction, as he had hoped to be; appreciated the message from the King and the numerous Italian and foreign scientific and literary societies of which he was a member. But the inquiries that pleased him best were those of his native Brivio, which he had chosen as his last resting-place.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

A CRITERION OF THE DIRECT TAX.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much interest your very able editorial upon "Income Taxes in 1787," in your issue of March 21, in which you show what meaning was attached to the term "direct taxes" by the framers of the Constitution. Will you permit me to add a word by way of supplement, which I have not seen suggested, by either court or counsel, in any case

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heretofore, or now, before the United States Supreme Court?

It is illogically claimed by one of the justices delivering the opinion in Hylton vs. United States, 3 Dallas, that the term under discussion could not embrace such a thing as "carriages," because an apportionment of such a tax would impose very hard and onerous taxation upon those States in which few carriages were owned. Hence, the learned justice concludes, the term "direct taxes" could not have been intended to embrace personal property.

Does this follow? It will be conceded that the great leading idea of the Constitutional Convention, running through the whole legislation on this subject, was *equality* of taxation—uniformity, as the Constitution expresses it when dealing with "imposts, duties, and excises." It will be further admitted, I apprehend, that it was the equality of the burden to be imposed which the Convention was aiming at when it required that direct taxes should be apportioned among the States according to census and representation, however much it may have fallen short of its purpose. Now, keeping this central idea in view, does it not rather follow, where such an apportionment would produce inequality, not that such a tax is an indirect one, but that it is a direct tax which Congress has no power to levy—in one word, that the power conferred upon Congress to levy a direct tax is necessarily qualified by the implied proviso that it is such a direct tax as can be equitably apportioned? Whether it is such a tax or not, Congress must in the first instance decide, leaving the ultimate determination of the question to the courts.

It needs no argument to show that indirect taxes cannot be apportioned among the States; hence the substitution of the word uniform for apportionment—both expressions, however, being used to carry out the one central idea which was dominating the mind of the Convention.

A word more upon the subject of uniformity: It is a curious instance of want of uniformity in the act that it compels those who *rent* their family dwellings to return as part of their income the rent they pay out of that income, for which they are allowed no deduction other than the $4,000 exemption, while those who own their residences escape the burden so imposed upon renters. The latter are not required to make any return of the yearly value of their dwellings as part of their income.

INDEX.

AUGUSTA, GA., March 26, 1895.

THE LATE PROFESSOR BLACKIE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The death of Professor Blackie of Edinburgh must have made many a heart sad, for, though the number grows less and less year by year, still students of his are scattered over the English-speaking world, and every recollection of the dear old man is a loving memory.

He had been transferred from Aberdeen to Edinburgh in the fifties. It was currently supposed among us youngsters that his hereditary theological opinions had been shattered while a student in Germany, and that when he accepted a chair in Aberdeen he signed the Confession of Faith with a pen, but repudiated it with his tongue. However that may be, he was a regular attendant at Dr. Guthrie's church, and a devoted admirer of that great preacher and (better still) human embodiment of gentleness and goodness. Who of us can forget Blackie of a Monday morning, rushing, as was his wont, out of his retiring room on to the platform, shaking his long, straggling locks out of his eyes, and trying to insinuate his awkward, wiry arms into his gown, greeting us with the question, "Gentlemen, did you hear Dr. Guthrie yesterday? He used exactly the same simile as Homer did, and I know he did not copy him."

My introduction to Blackie was away back in those mid-century days. I came from Germany after the session had opened, and applied for admission to his class, but asked for a short respite for the payment of my fee. This he readily granted, filled up my ticket and stuck it into the looking-glass in his retiring-room. Some weeks after, I followed him into his room to pay my debt. He looked over his list and assured me I had paid. I assured him to the contrary, and he protested, till I pointed out my ticket on his mantelpiece. Then, in the exuberance of his pleasure, he literally danced about the room, his gown streaming behind him, and explained that as he had settled his accounts for the year with Mrs. Blackie, here was a clear ten guineas of pocket money to spend as he might think best.

Our weekly treat was the hour he devoted to reading us selections from his translation of Homer—a treat only excelled by Aytoun's recitations of Scottish Ballads, in his lectures on that subject.

Every one knows that Blackie's hobby was admiration for the modern Greek and modern Greek language. He advised us to buy and read modern Greek works. I still have a collection of Greek tracts published by the Religious Tract Society, the only modern Greek literature I could find. Fired by Blackie's enthusiasm, we boys did try to speak Greek to one another out of class hours.

But while inspiring us with his likes and dislikes, no professor had his class under more perfect control. A look or a gesture sufficed to arrest the slightest approach to unruliness, which was only too prevalent in other classes Poor old Pillings still pretended to teach Latin out of his 'Eclogæ,' and fretted and fumed over the insubordination of his class. The more he lectured and rated his class, the more the class enjoyed it. At length a mischievous fellow applauded the close of one of the poor old Professor's tirades by exploding a firecracker. It was impossible to locate the exact point of the explosion, so the old gentleman was foolish enough to tell us that as we issued he would stand at the door and demand of each student on his honor if he were the man. When the critical moment came, there was a rush. The students rushed, old Pillings rushed; but half the class, and of course the culprit, got out before he barred the door.

Academical life was not dignified in old Edinburgh. I wonder whether it is more so now. Not only was it not dignified, it was more or less brutal. Lads were not humane then. The professor of all others in the academical department whose name added lustre to the faculty was the renowned philosopher Sir William Hamilton. His face was as full of dignity and intelligence as ever, when at rest; but the old gentleman was paralyzed. Poverty compelled him to retain his professorship. He was carried into his chair, and his lecture read. Sometimes, however, he could not restrain himself from trying to utter or expand the thoughts which had made him famous. Then the contorted features and broken sentences, which should have moved his audience to tears, only excited to jeers and risibility the young barbarians who filled the benches. It was a pitiable sight and a deplorable exhibition. *Eheu!* how vividly the old quadrangle is photographed on one's memory, and the men, now nearly all shades, students as well as professors, who thronged it!

J. DOUGLAS,
A PRIZE-MAN of 1855–'56.

NEW YORK, March 29, 1895.

THE NEED OF A NEW REVIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Kindly permit the passing mention here of my second letter under this caption, held by you several weeks in the hope that others might evince interest, but finally published in the *Citizen* of Philadelphia, the new organ of university extension. The editor of the latter will gladly send the (March) number to any one interested. Numerous concrete illustrations were there offered. But a more sweeping assertion may be ventured.

Let any specialist in literature, history, etc., write a paper of, say, twenty thousand words, upon some larger aspect of his work, in such language and form as he would employ towards his associates in the college faculty, or at a union meeting of learned societies. He will seek in vain for an American editor who will even *read* the essay with a view to publication! (No one knows how many such studies already exist; but from the pigeonholes of a single famous desk, not a hundred leagues from Miss Scott's door, a dozen notable but unpublished Humanistic essays could undoubtedly be extracted.) Such were not the conditions when Longfellow was a professor at Bowdoin. It ought not so to be to-day.

But if founded merely by or for one university, a new review would probably hasten that multiplication of local and special publications which is the plague of German scholarship. Indeed, rivalry would soon repeat the story of the dragon's teeth!

Now it was precisely the earnest study of history and literature that taught our fathers how to create a large and lasting political union. Will professed devotees of those disciplines be slower to learn the same lesson than are our business corporations and creative industries? Must scholars be the last to realize the benefits of combination, correlation, community of interest? It is quite possible for twenty universities and colleges to unite in supporting an institution controlled by none and therefore doubly helpful to all. That, and much more, the American School at Athens has taught us.

But the interest is wider than the universities. There are many thousands of earnest intelligent men and women in America, many of them educated by other experiences than academic life. Has our higher scholarship no large and effective message to them? Are there no results from special research which can be applied to the national and social life of the whole people? If from such an appeal the lover of learning for its own sweet sake would fain turn away with a supercilious smile, let him at least not turn back to the classics, where Cicero will exclaim to him: "Ceteros pudeat, si qui ita se litteris abdiderunt ut nihil possint ex iis ad communem afferre fructum"! Nor will the first sentence of the 'Politics' bring him any comfort from the most learned of ancient scholars.

WILLIAM CRANSTON LAWTON.

3737 LOCUST STREET, PHILADELPHIA.

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THE BOOKMAN AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of March 28, I notice a criticism of the new monthly, the *Bookman*, regarding the character of its English. Among the quotations cited to show the bad English is the following: "This novel . . . is laid among the scenes and characters of old Virginia."

The novel referred to is 'Henry Esmond.' The *Bookman* must have been thinking of 'The Virginians.' What would Lowell say to this error? M. L. Langley.

Newport, March 29, 1895.

SACHER-MASOCH'S FIRST NOVELS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Noting the statement in your issue of this week that Sacher-Masoch began to write fiction about twenty years ago, and that 'Kaunitz' (1873) was his first novel, permit me to say that Bornmüller's 'Schriftsteller-Lexicon,' which I have generally found accurate, gives the following titles and dates: 'Eine Galizische Geschichte' (1866), 'Die Geschiedene Frau' (1870), 'Das Vermächtniss Kains,' erster Theil (1870), 'Die Republik der Weiberfeinde' (1872), and 'Maria Theresia und die Freimaurer' (1872). The same authority gives for his first novel published by the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the date 1871. It is a small matter, but perhaps worth correcting.

William Morton Payne.

Chicago, March 19, 1895.

A GRAMMAR-DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Librarians and others frequently have occasion to consult dictionaries of foreign languages of which the grammar is unknown or unfamiliar. In these cases it would be a great convenience if a brief grammar could be prefixed. This grammar should contain tables of declensions and conjugations, lists of irregular verbs, with their principal parts, and the general rules of the language, and might easily be condensed into four to eight pages. Whitney's 'German Dictionary' contains a list of irregular verbs in English and German, and Harrison and Baskerville's 'Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' includes an extended grammar; but with these exceptions I know of none of the commoner dictionaries which have such a help.—Yours truly,

Gardner M. Jones, Librarian.

Salem Public Library,
Salem, Mass., March 30, 1895.

Notes.

Subscriptions may now be sent to the Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, for Dr. Stephen B. Weeks's 'Southern Quakers and Slavery,' a work embracing some 300 pages octavo. Dr. Weeks has just published among the Bibliographical Contributions of Harvard University a very meritorious Bibliography of the Historical Literature of North Carolina—a State in which the Quaker settlements best endured the anti-slavery exodus that helped to people Ohio and Indiana.

Ginn & Co., Boston, promise in the course of the summer 'Money and Banking,' illustrated by American history from the settlement at Jamestown to the present day, by Horace White.

Dr. Horace Howard Furness's Variorum edition of the "Midsummer Night's Dream" is now passing through the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

Roberts Bros.' announcements for the present month include a 'Life of Prince Bismarck,' by Charles Lowe; Echegaray's 'Mariana,' translated by James Graham; 'Tales of Mean Streets,' by Arthur Morrison; and a 'Handbook on Tuberculosis among Cattle,' by Henry L. Shumway.

Macmillan & Co. give notice that Prof. McCurdy's 'History, Prophecy, and the Monuments,' of which vol. i. has been for some time published, will be completed in two additional volumes instead of one, as contemplated. The same house is about to issue 'Elements of Palæontology,' from the German of Prof. Karl A. von Zittel, by Charles R. Eastman, with 2,000 figures.

The 'Reminiscences' of Bishop Clark of Rhode Island; 'Historic Doubts as to the Execution of Marshal Ney,' by James A. Weston; and 'Civic Christianity,' or the relation of the Church and the individual to the work of social reform, by the Rev. Wm. Prall, D.D., are among the spring publications of Thomas Whittaker.

Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready 'The Ways of Yale in the Consulship of Plancus,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers.

'Landscape Gardening as applied to Home Decoration,' by Samuel T. Maynard of the Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture, will be brought out by John Wiley & Sons, together with a 'History of Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute,' by Prof. Palmer C. Ricketts, with illustrations.

Frederick A. Stokes Company publish this year 'Under Summer Skies' (Egypt, Palestine, and the Far East) and 'On Sunny Shores' (Greece and Italy), two books of travel by Clinton Scollard, with illustrations by Mrs. Margaret L. Randolph; and 'Thoughts of William Ewart Gladstone,' compiled by G. Barnett Smith.

'The Major's Favorite,' by John Strange Winter, will be issued by J. Selwin Tait & Sons in a few days. The same house will shortly publish the first of its "Zenda" series of graphic copyright fiction.

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, issue directly Charles Nodier's story of 'Trilby, the Fairy of Argyle' (1822), translated by Nathan Haskell Dole.

Another political novel, 'Senator Intrigue and Inspector Noseby: A Tale of Spoils,' by Frances Campbell Sparhawk, will bear the imprint of the Red-Letter Publishing Co., Boston.

We are informed that all of Prof. Arber's publications, with the exception of the 'Transcript of the Stationers' Registers,' have been taken over by Archibald Constable & Co., London, who in future will be sole publishers of them.

A second edition of Lady Jeune's 'Lesser Questions,' which we reviewed at length some months ago, has just been put on the American market by Dodd, Mead & Co. It affords much food for wholesome reflection.

'The Military Career of Napoleon the Great,' by Montgomery B. Gibbs (Chicago: Werner Co.), is one of the hero-worshipping volumes, happily less numerous than they once were. Apocryphal anecdotes are collected with care, and authentic ones are distorted and colored to brighten the glories of the idol. His unscrupulous personal ambition is represented as patriotic devotion to France, and his crimes, like his *coup d'état* of Brumaire and his seizure of the Spanish royal family, are described as innocent acts. Gross blunders are made in history, and absurdities occur in battle-descriptions, so that the general result may fairly be called a sensational romance.

Of a very different sort is another Chicago publication (A. C. McClurg & Co.), 'Napoleon Bonaparte's First Campaign,' by Lieut. Sargent, Second United States Cavalry. This is a history of the famous campaign of Italy in 1796, analyzed for the use of military students. The work is so clearly done, and the sketch-maps so well illustrate the successive stages of the campaign, that the general reader can follow the story with satisfaction, and understand wherein Bonaparte was really great. A fuller system of foot-note references to authorities would add much to the value of the little volume for students' use.

The first volume of the Transactions of the Jewish Historical Society of England contains several scholarly essays, the most notable of which are C. Trice Martin's "Domus Conversorum," Joseph Jacobs's "Little St. Hugh of Lincoln," and Lucien Wolf's "Cryto-Jews under the Commonwealth." The volume is well printed and has some excellent illustrations, including many facsimiles of old documents. In his inaugural address, delivered on November 11, 1893, the president says: "We were told that Anglo-Jewish history was a very small affair, that it was not likely to add much to the general history of our race, and that it would throw no light on the annals of our country." Such statements betray ignorance of the contents of the Jewish records in the Public Record Office. The existence of the Jewish Plea Rolls of the thirteenth century would in itself justify the foundation of this Society, and their publication would throw much light on the general constitutional and social history of England. The volume before us should dispel all doubts regarding the *raison d'être* of the Society.

'Lovell's Gazetteer of British North America' (Montreal: John Lovell & Son) is a revision and extension of the original issue of 1881, and the territorial development in the meantime has fully warranted the labor of overhauling. The work consists of two chief parts, the gazetteer proper, and a so-called "Table of Routes," or one line directory of places, showing the country or district and province in which each is situated, and the most convenient points from which it is accessible by railroad or steamer; a key to the appropriate route being furnished elsewhere. This is a very convenient feature. The key further exhibits the stations on the line of each road, with distances in miles. The publisher tries to take a cheerful view of the material prospects of the Dominion, yet is forced to regret its slow increase in population—only 600,000 from 1881 to 1891, and the total in the latter year falling short of 5,000,000. One must accordingly do some serious reading between the lines when he encounters a list two and a half pages long of "railways subsidized by the Parliament of Canada," ranging from 2,000 miles down to three! Half-a-dozen maps of the principal divisions of the Dominion would much have heightened the value of this Gazetteer, especially for sportsmen, to whom the compiler has purposely catered.

Ginn & Co. publish a thin volume, by William Ordway Partridge, entitled 'The Technique of Sculpture.' The first half of it is devoted to "History," and we can conceive of no one to whom it would be of use. The second half is devoted to "Practice," and this part contains some practical directions which might prove useful to any one so ill-advised or unfor-

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tunate as to attempt the study of modelling without a master. Directions for setting up a skeleton or for making a piece-mould do not, however, constitute a treatise on the "technique of sculpture," even when accompanied by vague remarks about the ideal or recommendations to study phrenology.

'Physiology for Beginners' (Macmillan) is stated in the preface to have been supervised by Professor Michael Foster, but actually written by his senior demonstrator, Dr. L. E. Shore. A commendable feature is the prominence given to demonstrations and to the examination of the viscera of some animal by the student himself. But there are many and considerable defects in the text and illustrations in view of the announcement that the work is "intended for those who have no previous knowledge of the subject." For example, on p. 78 the pupil is told to place a sheep's heart for study so that the apex is away from him; but on the opposite page the organ is represented with the apex toward him. One of the two most important and obvious differences between the human and sheep's hearts is the presence in the latter of a moderator band; yet this is neither mentioned nor shown in the figures. Why, too, should the text be continually burdened by the word *called* before the commonly accepted names of the several organs? It is refreshing to note the omission of the perfunctory, inadequate, and misleading chapters on stimulants and narcotics that characterize most of the recent American text-books; but the ideal 'Physiology for Beginners' has yet to be written.

The subject of perfumes in the vegetable kingdom is treated of pleasantly, though not in a very learned way, in Donald McDonald's 'Sweet-Scented Flowers and Fragrant Leaves' (Scribners). The book contains a rambling "historical sketch" of the general subject, redolent of jonquils, wallflowers, and roses, followed by an alphabetical list, 136 pages long, of sweet-smelling plants. Many of the names are coupled with more or less interesting remarks, sometimes about the nature or the cultivation of the plant, sometimes as to the character of the odor. Under the word "Rosa" is a long and fairly well digested account of roses, in which some of the most highly scented varieties are specially mentioned. Sixteen colored lithographs adorn the book, mostly well selected, as the Maréchal Niel for a rose; but to give a figure of a commonly cultivated Asiatic magnolia, and call it in the list of illustrations *Magnolia grandiflora*, is surely an injustice to one of the very noblest blossoms of the American forest.

On April 1, when Bismarck completed his four-score years, a volume entitled 'Neue Tischgespräche des Fürsten Bismarck,' by Heinrich von Poschinger, was to be published by the Deutsche Verlagsanstalt in Stuttgart and Berlin. If the extracts from this work which form the leading paper in the February number of the *Deutsche Revue* may be taken as a fair specimen of its contents, the book promises to be an amusing, though from an historical point of view not particularly valuable, contribution to contemporary Bismarckiana.

Tourists who can read German, and who have an ocean journey to make, may well possess themselves of Justus Perthes's pocket 'Sea-Atlas' (New York: Westermann), which aims to answer exactly, yet in a manner clear to the ordinary mind, questions likely to be asked as to sea terms, observations, rate of speed, signals, rules of the sea, lighthouses, tides, winds, storms, etc., etc. Besides explanations and tables on these heads, there are numerous maps of winds and currents and temperature, and a great many harbor-charts. Two scales have, almost without exception, been used, and make comparisons easy. The little book should be a relief to the tedium of the voyage.

Mr. Edward W. James, whose valuable contributions to the *William and Mary Quarterly* we have from time to time noticed, has begun publication of an elegantly printed *Lower Norfolk County (Va.) Antiquary*. The only definite announcement about it is, that it "is intended for the purpose of making known and perpetuating the history of this section; and as the editor and proprietor is doing this exclusively for his own pleasure, there will be no notes and no queries—no questions asked and none answered." Still, as librarians who may desire a file of the *Antiquary* will have to put a question as to terms and conditions to Mr. James, we will mention his address, which is 824 Park Avenue, Richmond. He prints the censuses of slave-owners and slave-holdings or hirings in Princess Anne County for 1771–1774 and 1860, the defects of the latest record being occasionally supplied by personal testimony that a certain person "at the emancipation proclamation" owned 19 slaves, and another "lost 17 by the *war*." He also copies the will of Elizabeth Kelsick, in which bequests of negroes and of plate run side by side. Much space is given to the inception of the Norfolk Academy in 1761, and to troubles with its master in 1796. There are many genealogical and historical foot-notes showing wide research. The whole number is very readable and instructive.

The March *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is devoted to 'Claude Lorrain.' Mr. George Grahame takes a somewhat insular view of his subject, and discusses Ruskin and Turner a little more than seems necessary to a non-British reader, while he fails to note Claude's influence on the greatest of modern landscape-painters, Corot; but he succeeds in giving a not unfair account of Claude's place in art, and a notion of the quality of his very artificial charm. The illustrations are, as usual in this publication, excellent.

There is a very timely account of the Island of Formosa in *Petermann's Mittheilungen* for February. The interior is apparently still but little known, the Chinese authority being limited to the western coast-country, the extreme northern part, and a narrow strip of the east coast. The Chinese are gradually working their way inland, cutting down the forests and replacing them with indigo and tea plantations. Much of the soil is extraordinarily fertile. In some places there are three rice-harvests in the year, and tea-leaves are picked three times—"in many places, indeed, seven times"—a year. Anthracite coal of good quality is found in large quantities and close to the sea, a thing of great importance to a maritime power like Japan. Alluvial gold has also been discovered in the beds of some of the northern streams. The Chinese have built a railroad from the port of Kelung a distance of about 100 miles, to a town near the west coast. An excellent map accompanies the article. There is also a reproduction of the Government map showing the extent of malaria in Italy, and constructed from the death returns for the three years 1890–'92. During this time the deaths from malaria numbered 49,407, or 54 in 100,000. The disease is confined almost entirely to the part south of the latitude of Rome, though only six of the sixty-nine provinces are wholly free from it. Sardinia and Sicily suffer the most, the death-rate from malaria being 8 in every 1,000. Rome is rapidly improving, the number of deaths having fallen from 650 in 1881 to 189 in 1893, notwithstanding the great increase in population.

Léon G. Pélissier's article, "La Matière et les Matériaux de l'Histoire du Premier Empire," in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for February, is a succinct exposition of the principal divisions of the subject-matter claiming the attention of the historian of the epoch, followed by a discriminating survey of the material at his disposal. The distinctive character of this "drame de dix ans" and its actors, the novel and exceptional phenomenon presented by the imperial court and family, the diverse elements and changing ideals of the armies, are drawn in clear outlines. In his estimation of the historical literature of the epoch the writer points out the influences and motives determining the character of the publications previous to 1880, about which time, in consequence of causes partly indicated in the essay, a new phase, "purely and strictly scientific," of Napoleonic literature begins. The same number of the *Revue* contains that part of a report by M. Georges Blondel to the minister of education which treats of the work in the social sciences done in the German universities.

Two documents, both reprints, lately issued by the Bureau of Education (Nos. 214, 215), sum up the present condition of the interesting experiment of domesticating reindeer in Alaska, of which we have heretofore taken notice. One is the report on education in that Territory (1891-'92), by Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the General Agent; the other is his report (1894) on the introduction of the deer. Many of the numerous illustrations are common to both. The matter is good reading, and the prospect, if only whiskey can be banished, is very cheering.

We have received from F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, his panel photographic portrait of the late Richard Vaux of that city, a man of exceptionally varied experience in law, diplomacy, legislation, and executive authority. The likeness displays the well-known eccentricity of the ex-mayor's personal appearance, and gives a remarkable impression of virility.

At two meetings of the "Congregation of the University of Oxford" held after the one reported upon in the *Nation* of February 28, the statute establishing the new (post-graduate) degrees of *B.Litt.* and *B.Sc.* has taken what will be its final shape. Technically the new degrees are not yet established, for the statute as amended has still to be voted upon by the "Convocation of the University of Oxford." "Convocation" includes not only the 436 Masters of Arts in residence who constitute "Congregation," but practically all others who hold that degree. As a matter of fact, Convocation is sure to pass a statute like the one now in question, since there is the greatest possible unanimity in favor of it. The most important of the new amendments lately passed to the statute is the one cutting down the period of residence required from three to two years. It was held that at least two years' residence must be demanded for the new Oxford degrees, no matter what work may have been done or what degree may have been taken elsewhere, because no satisfactory scheme of advanced work could be framed for a year. Throughout the discussions at the three meetings of Congregation, there was a constant preoccupation with possible candidates who might be tempted by the new de-

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grees to resort to Oxford from the American universities.

—In lieu of the frequent meritorious and needful article that prods the reluctant patriot, the *Atlantic* presents this month a triplet of papers admirably adapted to stir patriotic sentiment at its springs and sources. A war episode is what is, perhaps, least of all suggested by the title of a short poem, "While the Robins Sang." Nevertheless, the reader finds one in it, told in Tennysonian vein and measure, with some of the softening and mellowing associations with nature that lift it towards the rank of poetic legend that wears. Mrs. Earle's "Flower Lore of New England Children" shows, if one chooses so to look at it, when and where the finer instincts of nationality may be bred in the bone; while a tale, "Dumb Foxglove," by Annie Trumbull Slosson, of the plain folk of New England, falls not far short of dissolving the eye into ecstasy of pity touched with admiration. Dr. Birkbeck Hill again proves one of the pleasant uses of leisure that has been earned by scholarly labor, by lingering with the reader, in "A Talk over Autographs," among those in his own large collection, as well as among his equally ample reminiscences of some of their writers. An interesting study of *Macbeth*, by John Foster Kirk, is built not upon the scaffolding of Shaksperian glossaries and grammars, but upon the basis of an understanding of the natural ways of flesh and blood. Therefore, although its writer's reading is wide enough to bring to bear on it powers of comprehension that are freely used, this is a piece of literary criticism through which the *Macbeths*—for the study is of the pair—lose nothing in human reality, while their motives of action and shades of character gain skilful interpretation. But the article *par excellence* of the month will undoubtedly seem to many readers C. T. Copeland's "Robert Louis Stevenson." An enthusiasm at once so discreet and so ardent needed only the finished form of expression it has found here to render it complete. Elizabeth Stuart Phelps and Gilbert Parker continue to fill the space allotted to serials.

—In the *Century* the altitude of two bright particular stars in the artistic heavens—the one Mme. Réjane, the other Bernhard Stavenhagen—is briefly but excellently taken by Justin Huntly McCarthy and by Henry T. Finck. Mr. Finck gives an interesting outline of past conditions of piano-playing, and makes his criticism comprehensive enough to be of some measure of service to the reader who wishes to increase his pleasure in beautiful music by an intelligent appreciation of the principles on which its beauties rest. Excellent likenesses also accompany each of these papers. A somewhat sensational interest attaches to the seriously scientific article by Thomas Commerford Martin on the recent electrical work of Nikola Tesla, inasmuch as on March 13 Tesla's laboratory was destroyed by fire, leaving the illustrations to this article the only record of some of his experiments. Among these, photography by phosphorescence lends itself best to popular illustration and description. Readers with a taste for articles of adventure founded on facts will find no stint of either in the lengthy account of our former privateering compatriot, Paul Jones. A liberal number of pictures support the interest of this narrative, which is signed Molly Elliot Seawell. Other readers, who object to taking their fiction with interruptions, will, after next month, be able to follow Mrs. Burton Harrison's 'Errant Wooing' from beginning to end without pause. Mr. Crawford's 'Casa Braccio' and the Life of Napoleon will, on the contrary, still continue their monthly course.

—Notwithstanding the fair promise held out by names on its title-page, a search through *Scribner's* for pictures or papers above mediocrity proves somewhat delusive. Mr. Abbey contributes to the numerous Easter illustrations, and Mr. Lang writes of Prince Charles Stuart. The latter, however, fills a generous number of pages with an accretion of details, in a fashion that better represents the painstaking methods of an historical "Seminar" than his own particular powers of literary fusion or luminous presentment of individuals. Mr. Abbey's subject, representing an old English custom of the queen and her ladies creeping "with dyvers giftes of egges and apples" to the foot of the cross on Good Friday, is admirably chosen; his picture, unfortunately, is void of the spirited qualities of life and action usually to be found in his work. It is not surprising that the part of the month's instalment of Robert Grant's 'Art of Living' which turns upon the effects of a college education for daughters, should, though liberal in view, be lacking in novelty. A subject that has been so done to death in print probably needs a timely rest to recruit its exhausted vitality. But the duty of men of means and social position to practise the doctrine of democratic equality in the schooling of their sons is a comparatively dormant question of education, which Mr. Grant vigorously rouses. The withholding of the sons of such men from the public schools is discussed in relation to the welfare of the sons themselves, of the community, and of the public. Boarding-schools, their Anglicizing tendencies, and their advantages and disadvantages for prospective American citizens, also come in for a share of sensible comment.

—An allied topic is wisely treated in the Editor's Study of *Harper's*, under the heading "Social Position of Teachers." It is instructive to notice that while Mr. Grant finds in the anxious but selfish mothers of the well-to-do classes the potent enemies of the public schools, Mr. Warner likewise arraigns women of the same class as the force inimical to the social claims of teachers of their own sex. This is evidence of the encouraging type that tends to make a strong case against the parties accused. Of this number's two articles of practical import, one is on "Recent Progress in the Public Schools," by the Commissioner of Education; the other deals with the portion of population that is not affected by schools or their methods. Unpretending as is this second article, "Club Life among Outcasts," by Josiah Flynt, it deserves a widespread circulation. Especially is its place in the hands of members of settlements and workers in the slums of all shades and varieties. Philanthropic effort and brotherly influences are in no wise met by discouragement, but levels of humanity whither, the writer claims, these must be preceded by law and government, punishment and sequestration, are described from the standpoint of an acquaintance gained by drastic means, and sufficiently intimate to give weight to the author's views. Arthur Symons has handled his paper, "Venice in Easter," with capital literary skill. The reader accustomed, however, to accept the City of the Doges in the serious mood of a Ruskinite will have to stretch his catholicity of taste to its limits to include a liking for these decadent "impressions and sensations." The leading article, "Our National Capital," is composed in the style that the magazine might safely leave in undisputed possession to the newspaper.

—In the February number of *Nord und Süd* (of which Paul Lindau is still the editor), J. B. Horn has an interesting article on Wagner's "Meistersinger," apropos of the Hans Sachs celebration. Thirty years ago, he points out, the prolific cobbler-poet was known to Germans only through histories of literature. To-day his name and personality are as familiar as those of any historic personage. Wagner's humorous opera has done for him what the historians and philologists could never have accomplished. Herr Horn gives the history of this opera, and shows how Wagner altered and improved it in successive versions before it was wedded finally to the music. His basis of comparison is chiefly the facsimile of the first version of the poem which B. Schott of Mainz issued to celebrate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the opera's first performance at Munich. The publishers also placed at Herr Horn's disposal a number of letters written to them by Wagner in 1861 and 1862. In one of these he says, in regard to his "Meistersinger" plan: "The subject involves a good deal of sentiment and drollery (*viel gemüthlich-Drolliges*), and I pride myself on having hit upon something entirely unexpected and unique in this entirely original conception of mine. Its style, in the poem as in the music, is to be thoroughly easy and popular, and its prompt success on the stage will be further insured by the circumstance that this time I need neither a so-called first tenor nor a great tragic soprano." It is well known that Wagner conceived and sketched the plot of his only comic opera as early as 1845; and in 1861 he wrote that he had postponed this merry work in the belief that he would be more disposed to carry it out in the serene atmosphere of old age. His method of composition is illustrated by the remark made in January, 1862, "The music is already complete in my head," where it remained in part till the completion of the score in October, 1867.

—Prof. Reuter of the Christianeum of Altona, whose valuable contributions to the study of Rückert we mentioned a year ago, now gives us in the "Yearly Programme" of that institution another batch of information on the poet's private life, largely from hitherto unpublished letters of Rückert himself. These letters, covering the last years of Rückert's stay at Erlangen and the first years of his connection with the University of Berlin, are interesting chiefly from the pathological point of view. They show a man who, hemmed in by narrow surroundings, oppressed by bodily sufferings, soured by the discrepancy between his inner riches and his outer limitations, has lost his native elasticity, so that he fails at the very moment when he is called to a larger and more suitable sphere of action. It is hard to recognize here the poet of the "Geharnischte Sonnette"; and it is truly pitiful to read such a reflection as the following, written in the first year of his stay at Berlin: "My position here is perfectly untenable and inane, and I must try to get out of it and back to my former solitude. Schelling has monopolized the interest of the public, and the King is entirely bewitched by Tieck. If the curious crowd which thronged into my first lecture had only received me with some token of recognition, I might have gone into it with some zest. As it is, I strike my sails." No wonder that the last twenty-five years of Rückert's life ripened so little poetic fruit. His work was done when he finished 'Die Weisheit des Brahmanen.'

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—The third volume of the collected writings of Ludwig Bamberger is entitled 'Politische Schriften von 1848 bis 1868' (Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart), and consists of newspaper and magazine articles setting forth the aspirations for German freedom and unity cherished by the uncompromising Liberal party that inaugurated the Revolution of 1848. The achievement of German unity by far different methods and with far different aims has tended to discredit those early strivings, and to give a grotesque air to much of the ardent writings in which they found expression. Bamberger's articles, however, are so impressive by reason of their evident sincerity, and so attractive by virtue of their literary finish, that their republication cannot fail in some measure to rehabilitate, in the eyes of the present generation, the generous if misguided aspirations of the handful of ardent patriots who threw themselves into the hopeless struggles of those distant years. Some of the causes of their rapid failure are clearly sketched in Bamberger's graphic account of the rising in the Palatinate in May and June, 1849. The incompetence of the leaders and their lack of material resources were so great that the revolt could have been crushed in a week if the Governments had not been frightened out of their wits and had not immensely overestimated the strength of their assailants. The volume concludes with the original French version of the articles on Bismarck which appeared in the *Revue Moderne* in February, 1867, and at once gave Bamberger a European reputation.

—At Stationers' Hall, London, the International Society of Wood-Engravers—as the English Society calls itself—has just been holding an exhibition of its members' work. The show came at an opportune moment, for in England much has recently been heard, from certain quarters, of the depressed condition of the art and the chance of its complete disappearance in the immediate future. Altogether, to one who has only read the articles that have been written, the wood-engraver might already seem as doomed as the dodo. But the exhibition explained that wherever the evil lies, it is not with the wood-engravers themselves. A correspondent writes to us:

"From the large engraving departments of houses like Cassell's and the *Graphic*, strong and exquisite work on the wood is still turned out. There are independent engravers like Mr. Donner, whose block after Titian's 'Bacchus and Ariadne' approaches even Mr. Cole's Old Masters; like Mr. Whymper, whose engravings for his 'Scrambles among the Alps' will always make that volume a prize to the collector of this century's good illustrated books; like Mr. Biscombe Gardner, who is following the example of Kruell in publishing his engravings separately, without text; like Mr. Babbage, and still others, whose names, however, are but names unfortunately to the multitude. All these men exhibited in Stationers' Hall. There was also one block by Cole; there were also specimens of the really excellent color-printing done by Bong, the German, for *Moderne Künst*, now published in London in an English edition. If the designs for this magazine are commonplace and, at times, somewhat vulgar, the fault is not the engravers', and, certainly, engraving and printing have both reached a very high degree of technical perfection. The absence of cheap work from the collection seemed to explain the influence 'process' has had upon the trade, though not upon the art. The cheap wood engraver cannot compete with process, but his eventual disappearance is scarce to be regretted. On the other hand, as yet half-tone process cannot touch, in measure of accomplishment, the really fine wood-engraving—a fact which is fast being realized now that the first transports over process have been modified by time. Even in France, where the Guillaume process had for a while such a vogue, there is seen on every side a return to wood-engraving. In England the signs of return are not so marked as in the United States, though, singularly enough, a sixpenny publication like the *Idler* has begun to use wood blocks. Some houses, that have their own staff of engravers, are apt to put their best work into the hands of foreigners. And the great majority of publishers prize cheapness so much above excellence that a bad process block has far more charm for them than a good engraving. There are exceptions, of course."

GRIFFIS'S RELIGIONS OF JAPAN.

The Religions of Japan. By W. E. Griffis, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THIS work enjoys the advantage of meeting a want not only long felt, but expressed. The religions concerned are three: Shinto, the ethnic cult, with Confucianism and Buddhism, both imported though fully naturalized faiths. The first of these religions an authority like C. P. Tiele declined to treat in 1877, for want of reliable data ('History of Ancient Religions,' x.). Ten years later C. Saussaye ventured a page on the basis of the same rejected data, and necessarily with indifferent success. The better authorities tabulated two years later in his second volume of the 'Religionsgeschichte' came too late to aid the account in the first, of course. No other writer at once accessible and reliable has since attempted an account of Shinto. With Japan's other two religions, Confucianism and Buddhism, the case has been yet worse. No accredited writer has so much as attempted them, and students have been left with the natural though false notion that the Japanese forms simply reproduced the Chinese recently become familiar to us.

Dr. Griffis, then, undertook the much-needed task of coördinating the varied special treatises now accessible, and brought to it an invaluable preparation of personal acquaintance for four years with the faiths described. The result is in general an excellent compendium of the religions of Japan, which must come into immediate and general demand, and of which every future treatment must take account. As to the contents, let no one imagine that Japan is in religion, any more than in art and politics, a mere replica of her congener on the mainland. Upon all three of her religions—native and imported alike—Japan has set the stamp of her peculiar genius, much to the mortification of her elder, China, who, like some other countries, is much averse to being improved upon.

The almost total strangeness of the Japanese religious field to the Western reader calls for a specification of the characteristic facts described in the work before us. First as to Shinto. Here most students will for the first time learn that phallicism has prevailed in far-Oriental Japan, though all previous accounts of it have given India as its eastern limit. The requirements of a book meant for general circulation excluded much no doubt known to the author on this subject, and he refers (p. 381) the reader desirous of details to a monograph by Dr. Edmund Buckley of the University of Chicago entitled 'Phallicism in Japan,' and now ready at the University of Chicago Press. Another feature of special interest is the account of the fusion of Mikadoism, or belief in the Mikado's divine descent, with sun-worship, in order to confirm by religious supremacy that military ascendancy which the invading Mikado's tribe had won over earlier settlers. The specialist in hierology will note the bearing of this fact upon the present advocacy by H. Spencer, C. P. Tiele, and others less known of animism as the sole source of religion; for here is an animistic Mikadoism attached as something inferior to a widely spread, unquestioned and *independent* sun worship which shows no sign of an earlier derivation from aught else, and therefore points to naturism as a principle of religious origins coördinate with animism, as Max Müller, Saussaye, and others contend. Next comes a specimen or two of the very peculiar Shinto rituals, and a partial account of the myths and morals of the 'Kojiki,' the chief Shinto scripture. Of these rituals, that for the "purification of offences" has an obvious value in its bearing on the problem of expiation in general. Last we note an account of the very instructive phenomenon of arrested development caused in this case by the advent of Buddhism.

The treatment of Confucianism in Japan affords a rare insight into the mainsprings of the every-day life of the Japanese; for the to us exceedingly strange mutual toleration and even reciprocity of the three Japanese religions assigned secular morality to the charge of Confucianism, while the future world was provided for by Buddhism, and the past world cosmologically explained by Shinto. It appears that Confucianism bore in Japan its well-known Chinese fruits of servile obedience from inferiors, with unhampered control by superiors, an obsolescent form of which the modern traveller sees and admires in the exquisite politeness of even the poorest Japanese, while he knows nothing of the frightful cost at which it was secured. The duties of the "five relations" of society which form the essence of this Confucianism are stated and contrasted with the ethics of Christianity. Of the admissibility of such contrast no doubt can remain after reading the specifications here made, though judgment as to its degree will naturally vary. Whether the relation examined be that of sovereign and minister, of father and son, of husband and wife, of older and younger brother, or of friend and friend, it appears plain that while the *words* are mostly the same, the ideas connoted sometimes differ so much as to prove repugnant to us. Occasionally the words used reveal the difference, as in the case where the Japanese language contains no equivalent for brother, but always adds the important element of older or younger; and again where chastity must be translated by *teiso* or *misao*, both, however, meaning *womanly* virtue. "A circumlocution is needed to express the idea of a chaste man." This imperfectly developed Chinese morality took a downward step in Japan when, in accord with the old Mikadoism, it made the first relation—extended to include retainer and lord—paramount over the other four, even that filial relation which dominates in China. This change occasioned such bloody results that "no Moloch or Shiva has won more votaries to his shrine." The Confucianism that from the seventeenth century opposed Buddhism and dominated the *samurai* (literary and military) class was the medley made by Chu Hi, "the ethics of Confucius transfused with the mystical elements of Taoism and the speculations of Buddhism."

While but 97 pages are devoted to Shinto and only 54 to Confucianism, 170 are assigned to Buddhism, and this distribution, which is fair, indicates the salient fact that Buddhism has so far dominated Japan that on the whole Japan, with both its good and its evil, must be declared a Buddhist country. Here the introduction and growth of the religion, retaining the name but so little of the teaching of its

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famous Indian founder, are sketched in striking colors. Noticeable are the facts that here, as in India, Buddhism early won the allegiance of the court, whence influence and wealth accrued, and that conquest of the people was further much facilitated by that appropriation of the Shinto cult and property which modern Shinto reformers stigmatize as simple robbery. This latter course, so characteristic everywhere of Buddhism, took chief shape in the formation of a sect named Ryōbu, "two-faced," in which, on pantheistic principles, hundreds of the myriad Shinto deities were catalogued, under the term Gon-gen, as temporary manifestations of some Buddha; Amaterasu, regent of the Shinto pantheon, herself becoming an incarnation of Amida.

Of the twelve Buddhist sects introduced into or developed in Japan, five of the earliest group have long since disappeared, while the sixth is unimportant, the two mediæval sects called Tendai and Shingon are still powerful, and three of the four modern—*i. e.*, twelfth- and thirteenth-century sects, called Jōdō, Shin, and Nichiren—claim special attention as Japanese transformations of the Buddhist faith. The Tendai is philosophical, pantheistic, and Jesuitical, the Shingon is mystic and esoteric, a certain Zen sect, belonging to the modern group, reacts from expression in ceremony and scripture, and declares for the principle, "Look carefully within and there you will find the Buddha."

The three Japanese sects show the common trait of "universalism and democracy," though the Nichiren approximates to Romanism and the Jōdō and Shin Shu to Protestantism. While the Jōdō rather caricatures Protestantism, the Shin Shu so nearly approaches it that surprise amounting to shock certainly awaits the learner in this field. Those who have long relished the remarkable parallels between Buddhism and Romanism will find those between Buddhism (as Shin Shu) and Protestantism equally remarkable, though to them no doubt less appetizing. But truth must shine forth all the brighter, whatever happens to Romanism or Protestantism. Justification by faith alone, instantaneous conversion and sanctification, searching the scriptures, morality as important as and indeed the proof of faith, city evangelization, home and foreign missions, combined with rejection of penance, of fasting, of food-proscriptions, of pilgrimages, of monasticism and of amulets, conspicuously distinguish the Shin Shu or "Tree Sect" from every other Buddhist sect outside or inside Japan. The Buddhist Luther, by name Shinran Shōnin, promulgated his doctrines 1203 A. D. Shin Shu is by far the most numerous sect in Japan, and, what is most important of all, seems not incapable of further reform under the new influence of Christianity.

The account of Buddhism concludes with a chapter on its vast influence as a civilizing force in Japan, and traces to its doctrine of *karma* that spirit of hopeless resignation so characteristic of the East. The characteristic traits of Christianity and Buddhism are strikingly contrasted in one passage (p. 307):

"'As sad as a temple bell' is the coinage of popular speech; . . . whereas the general associations of the Christian spire and belfry, apart from the note of time, are those of joy, invitation, and good news, those of the tongueless and log-struck bells of Buddhism are sombre and saddening. 'As merry as a marriage-bell' could never be said of the boom from a Buddhist temple, even though it pour waves of sound through sunny leagues. There is a vast difference between the peal and play of the chimes of Europe and the liquid melody which floods the landscape of Chinese Asia. The one music, high in air, seems ever to tell of faith, triumph, and aspiration; the other, in minor notes, from bells hung low on yokes, perpetually echoes the despair of pessimism, the folly of living, and the joy that anticipates its end."

The book closes with an account of the century of Roman Christianity in Japan, and resultant two centuries of exclusion of all foreigners except the Dutch to a very limited extent.

It remains to indicate some limitations and errors which might misguide those not having access to the sources. First, then, the treatment of Shinto rather suggests than supplies the need for a technical account of that cult. Of 'Kojiki' and 'Yengishiki' only stray excerpts and not complete analyses are given, while no interpretation of either is attempted (p. 66), though eclipse, rain-storm, moon, and lightning form the bases of very neat myths never yet disentangled from their context. Mr. Percival Lowell's recent valuable discovery of trance-possession in Shinto should have been embodied in the work. No account of the leading figures in the Shinto pantheon is given, nor are Shinto magic and divination alluded to. The exceeding polygamy of the ancient rulers even with paternal sisters is overlooked, the unique shrines of the Sun-goddess and Moon-god are not described, nor the remarkable communion service called *kagura* as performed at these shrines. Plant and animal worship are illustrated but not described. Many or all of these topics were no doubt excluded by the scope of the book and the Morse lectures which it records, but not the less need pointing out. A *handbook* of Shinto, therefore, remains as much a desideratum as ever.

As respects Confucianism, a fuller account of the 'Teishu' from the sources will better ground insight into this so influential factor in Japanese life. The treatment of Buddhism is untechnical, but good; and especially worthy of commendation, both from the polemic and scientific standpoint, is that fairness which enables the author to both see and state the Christian parallels for what have too often been regarded as follies peculiar to Buddhism.

The following we judge to be palpable errors: "Shamanism or Animism," p. 15, whereas shamanism is not conterminous with, but only one of the myriad forms of, animism. "And if, etc.," p. 16, whereas animism is not a "more exact," but only more general, term than shamanism. The amulet is wrongly considered a fetish, p. 24, since it belongs to magic, being a pledge of the guardianship (Jap. *marmori*) of the deity, whose name it bears (cf. Saussaye's 'Religionsgeschichte,' i, 43-4). The account of the creative pair given on p. 64 is a phallic myth garbled *without warning* for polite presentation. Dr. Murray, in his recent 'Story of Japan,' sinned yet more against science, for he garbled the same myth after premising, p. 36, that "the only way to treat history is to give its early legends in as nearly the form in which they had been handed down as possible." The dragon referred to on p. 75, note 23, should have been interpreted as the fire-fiend it really is. On page 85 the coition hut should have been cited along with the parturition hut and the hut for the dying, which last should, according to 'Kojiki,' p. 97, be hut for the *dead*. The error on p. 103, whereby Confucius is represented as a student of the 'Hsiao King,' which very book records conversations between himself and Zang-Zze ('Sacred Books of the East,' iii., 451), is plain enough. To the King mentioned should be added Li Ki and Khun Khiu. The confident assertion on p. 103 that "the pre-Confucian faith was monotheistic" is sure to mislead the inexpert. With such scholars as C. P. Tiele and A. Reville holding strenuously to the opposite view, all talk about "almost universal agreement" is unjustified (cf. Reville's 'La Religion Chinoise,' p. 127). The introduction of the Japanese form Shaka is an anachronism at p. 160, and Gautama, the Buddha, was of the Sakya clan, not, as stated in the text, of the Muni clan. Muni means 'sage,' and Sakya muni 'sage of the Sakyas.' The erroneous substitution of Fudo for Kwannon on p. 279, was probably a pure mishap, since the idol is well known to all in Japan. The calyx of the lotus specified on p. 303 should be torus, or receptacle. We can recall no case in which Shaka's image occupies the centre of a Japanese temple, as stated on p. 303. Indeed, even small images of the founder of Buddhism, as of Maitreya (Jap. Miroku), the original Bodhisatva (Jap. Bosatsu), are uncommon.

That an early second edition will allow opportunity for the correction or vindication of these citations, we cannot doubt. It is, moreover, much to be hoped that this book will prove an incentive to other scholars in and out of Japan, applying rigider methods and more technical data, to devote an entire treatise to each of the religions here sketched in one.

SIR ROBERT DUDLEY.

Life of Sir Robert Dudley, Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland. By John Temple Leader, M.P. for Bridgewater from 1835 to 1837, and for Westminster from 1837 to 1847, Knight Commander of the Order of the Crown of Italy. Illustrated with Letters and Documents from original sources, collected by the author and hitherto inedited. Florence: G. Barbèra.

THE union of heroic action with intellectual culture and aspiration characteristic of the Elizabethan era, which is so conspicuous in Raleigh and Sir Philip Sydney, shows itself not less remarkably in the subject of this biography, Sir Robert Dudley, who styled himself Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland. Dudley set out as a soldier, but, his biographer tells us, "had from his youth a natural sympathy for the sea"—perhaps, we may add, for the cargoes of vessels navigating the sea, since in him, as in most of his compeers, there was manifestly a strain of the buccaneer. In 1594, when only twenty-one, he made a voyage of discovery in which, though he failed to find his way to an empire the people of which powdered themselves with gold-dust, he discovered Guiana, took Trinidad, and captured prizes. In a subsequent voyage of discovery and plunder he, in a small vessel with a crew reduced by sickness, fought a great Spanish ship for two days, and left her in a sinking condition. Other daring actions followed. In 1596 Dudley, in the absence of his uncle, the Earl of Nottingham, who was High Admiral, took the command of the English fleet; and in the year following he commanded the vanguard in the battle of Cadiz. At the same time he was profoundly studying the art and theory of navigation. He was one of the first to adopt sailing by great circles, and he constructed an elaborate instrument for finding the tides. He was a scientific ship-builder and the master of the art of fortification. He was a mathematician, and wrote on perspective. Medicine did not escape him, and he naturally produced a universal remedy. He was at the same time an

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economist and a politician, though in the latter character he showed little sagacity by compromising himself in Essex's Rebellion. Such a range of pursuits was, of course, possible only in an age in which the field of knowledge was narrow and capable of being embraced by a single mind. But the result was an approach to all-round excellence and harmonious development such as the world is not likely to see again. We have far greater men in different lines than the sixteenth century had, but we have no Walter Raleigh, Philip Sydney, or Robert Dudley.

Robert Dudley's family history, however, is one of many proofs that the moral virtue of the age (so far, at least, as the upper classes were concerned) was not on a par with its energy in action, or its intellectual splendor. There was an interregnum between the fall of the Catholic and the rise of the Protestant morality. The court of the virgin Queen was more remarkable for brilliancy than purity. Robert Dudley was the son of the Earl of Leicester, the unworthy, or perhaps too worthy, favorite of Elizabeth. After the death of Amy Robsart, Leicester married Lady Douglass Sheffield, but he concealed his marriage, fearing, as was conjectured, the Queen's wrath, and being unwilling to dissipate the flattering belief that he had been married to her in secret. Growing tired of Lady Douglass Sheffield, he drove her away, after, as she swore, practising on her life with poison, and married the widow of Lord Essex, with whom he had for some time been intriguing, and the death of whose first husband was ascribed by a tattling world to the skill of an Italian physician in the employment of his successor. It is difficult to see why the biographer who recounts these facts should scout as manifestly unfair the belief that Amy Robsart was murdered. A jury, he says, found a verdict of "mischaunce." But under whose influence was the jury empanelled, and what amount of evidence does Mr. Leader suppose would have sufficed in those days to make a jury find the lover of the Queen guilty of the murder of his wife? The verdict of mischaunce serves only to crush by anticipation the desperate hypothesis of suicide to which defenders of Leicester now resort.

Leicester in his will bequeathed to Robert Dudley a large estate in reversion, but, to please the last Lady Leicester and her friends, designated him as his base-born son. This piece of meanness led to litigation about the succession to the earldom, in which Robert Dudley's claim was overborne by the interest of the Dowager Lady Leicester and her party. He, however, afterwards assumed the titles of Earl of Warwick and Duke of Northumberland under a patent of the Emperor Ferdinand, who thus exercised for about the last time in relation to England his shadowy power as the universal Cæsar.

Disgusted by the injustice with which he had been treated, Dudley cast off his nationality, left England, and settled in Tuscany. He at the same time cast off the national religion and became a Roman Catholic; a change perhaps not very repugnant to the English nobleman and courtier of that day. But he went further and changed his wife. As a mere boy he had been contracted to Frances Vavasour, but the marriage had been forbidden by the Queen. He then married Alice Leigh, by whom he had children. He now left Alice behind him, though she was willing to follow him and turn Catholic, took with him Elizabeth Southwell, who pretended a wish to become a nun, and married her under a papal dispensation from the law of consanguinity, Alice and her children notwithstanding. His plea for repudiating Alice was that his marriage with her had been against the law of the Church because Frances Vavasour, to whom he had been precontracted, was still living at the time. Indiana divorce is not original after all.

Dudley joined the court of the Duke of Tuscany, built himself a palace at Florence, and became the Duke's master of marine, naval architect, and adviser on commercial affairs. To his inspiration Leghorn owed her position as a port and her prosperity. At Florence he ultimately harvested the observations and experiences of his life in his *opus magnum*, the 'Arcano del Mare,' a work in four bulky and sumptuous volumes treating of longitude and the means of determining it; discipline, military and maritime, naval architecture, and scientific navigation, with a great number of maps, charts, and diagrams. The work, though its science has, of course, been superseded, has still a high value in the eyes of book-collectors, and the first edition fetches a large price. It could scarcely have been brought out in England at that day.

Though he had renounced his nationality, Dudley had not lost interest in English politics or even his connection with the English Government. He was employed in a negotiation for a marriage between Prince Henry, the son of James I., and a Princess of Tuscany, which, if it had come to light, would probably have set Protestant England on fire, as did afterwards the negotiation for a marriage between Prince Charles and the Infanta of Spain. His inventive genius also struck out a plan for bridling the "exorbitances" and "impertinences" of Parliament, which he embodied in a tract addressed to James I. He proposes simply to build a fort in each of the chief towns, and garrison it with a soldiery, which is either to be foreign or at least to be drawn from a different part of the country. There can be no doubt that this remedy for Parliamentary impertinence, could it only have been applied, would have been at least as efficacious as the powder composed of antimony, scammony, and cream of tartar with which Dudley proposed to cure all bodily disease. The tract came to light at the time of Strafford's execution, immediately after which it was published by his enemies and coupled with his name. Dudley, when he wrote it, must have completely lost touch of England. With the air of Tuscany he had imbibed the political principles of De Medici. It is remarkable, however, that, like Bacon and Strafford, he means his monarchy to be still Parliamentary, though Parliament is practically to do the will of the Crown.

The work is a welcome little addition to our knowledge of the Elizabethan group, and credit is due to the house of Barbèra for the accuracy with which it has printed an English book.

Chapters from Some Unwritten Memoirs. By Anne Thackeray Ritchie. Harper & Bros.

IN a book of reminiscences written by one born in a great literary set we instinctively look first for something new about those who provoke eternal curiosity. Mrs. Ritchie's memoirs contain nothing very new, but much that is perhaps more satisfactory in the shape of casual personal impressions of people very well known to the world through their books and pictures. Whether by accident or design, she refrains from mentioning those who seemed to her disagreeable, and permits us contentedly to dwell in the belief that her father's friends were as nice as they were clever. One or two anecdotes illustrative of Carlyle's acerbity are narrated, but there is no doubt that Mrs. Ritchie's memory of him is affectionate as well as reverential. Of Dickens she says the pleasantest things imaginable. The Dickens parties were the delight of the Thackeray children, and the sketch of one of those wonderful entertainments presents rather a pretty vision of the two rivals in popular esteem. The children, having supped, were romping in the hall when suddenly

> "their noise became a cheer, and then another, and we looked up and saw that our own father had come to fetch us, and that his white head was there above the others; then came a third final, ringing cheer, and some one went up to him—it was Mr. Dickens himself — who laughed and said quickly, 'That is for you!' and my father looked up surprised, pleased, touched; settled his spectacles and nodded gravely to the little boys."

To those whom Mrs. Ritchie calls "his inconvenient little girls" the father was the centre of the universe—not a remote, awful abstraction, but a big, companionable, spectacled household god, especially adorable for his jokes and his activity in devising treats. On his books no opinions are offered, excepting that in 'Pendennis' his daughter seems to hear him talk. There is not a word of direct eulogy, but, by the narration of incidents that for no particular reason impressed themselves on a child's mind, the reader comes to share the writer's conviction that Thackeray was one of the wisest, bravest, and kindest of men, with the added suspicion that he was at heart one of the saddest. That he did not propose to aggravate the sorrow of existence by a too strict devotion to propriety is shown by his bad behavior at a party which he was giving in honor of the long-repressed volcano of Yorkshire, lately erupted in 'Jane Eyre' and reluctantly submitting to limited exhibition in London. The little girls were much in evidence at the party, and late in the evening, on a predatory excursion from drawing-room to dining-room, saw their father slipping out the front door. They told the guests, with indiscreet politeness, that he had gone out, but would surely come back very soon. However, he did not come back, and, long after, it was explained that the lioness wouldn't show off, that the party was intolerably dull, and so he had just gone off to the club. It is interesting to speculate on the probable reflections of the sombre, intense Miss Brontë, thrust into such a cheerful, friendly family life as the Thackerays'. Some one told Mrs. Ritchie that, after a dinner with them, she "remarked upon my father's wonderful forbearance and gentleness with our uncalled-for incursions into the conversation." Viewed through her own experience of the paternal relation and her submissive attitude to all men (except curates, the kind she knew best), the frank fondness of a great man for his children, girls at that, must have been too bewildering for comprehension, too trivial for approbation.

The Thackeray children spent a good deal of time with their grandmother in Paris, where they saw sights and people remarkable and otherwise, now evoked from the past and presented with graphic and graceful touch. Here and there we feel the father's manner, a ray of his humor, a shaft of his intuition; but the whole is in Mrs. Ritchie's own way—a very delicate and fine one, and never a tinkling echo of the voice of 'Vanity Fair.'

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The Aims of Literary Study. By Hiram Corson. Macmillan.

PROF. CORSON'S work contains, in a small compass, much that deserves the attention of those in particular who are teaching literature, and of the general reader hardly less. At the outset the writer cumbers himself unduly with some of Browning's psychology as it appears in "A Death in the Desert," and there is danger that the reader will be discouraged in the porch with the iteration of such disagreeable circumlocutions as the "What Does" and the "What Knows" and the "What Is"; but after the first few pages there is less of this, though in general a simpler terminology would be to the advantage of the doctrine which Prof. Corson has to preach. There is another drawback in his style, which, for one so thoroughly acquainted with the world's best literature, is singularly devoid of charm, and this suggests a doubt whether converse with good literature is the best way of learning how to write—or would, if Prof. Corson were not such an ardent devotee of Browning, like whom he dearly loves a parenthetic clause. He brings a railing accusation against the professional teachers of literature: they make its study a matter of intellectual knowledge and not of spiritual apprehension; they deal first and almost exclusively with the details that should come last and be subordinate. He would not have the historical connections of literature much insisted on. What is called the Philosophy of Literature he would call the Physiology of Literature. The method of M. Taine, accounting for all the phenomena of genius by circumstances of time and place, has for him no attraction. "A sympathetic, and, therefore, a synthetic response, must, in some measure, be given to a creation of genius, before the analytical faculty has or can have anything to do." And yet Prof. Corson has the liveliest sense of the vital and organic relations of the forms of literature to its spiritual essence. It is because of the inseparable unity of the form and spirit that he deprecates and denounces the custom of setting students at work to paraphrase in prose the language of the poets.

The last third of his book is devoted to the thesis that the best response to the essential life of a poem is to be secured by the fullest interpretative vocal rendering of it. He finds an admirable account of what reading should be in the Book of Nehemiah: "So they read in the book of the law of God *distinctly*, and *gave the sense*, and *caused them to understand the reading*." The first point is clear enunciation, the second relative emphasis, the third is spiritual appreciation, and this, Prof. Corson contends, cannot be effected by the eye so perfectly as by the voice when it is properly trained. He begs us to consider what the result would be if the reading voice were cultivated as widely and conscientiously as the singing voice is now. The voice is for him what the Greek chorus was—the interpreter of the poem. His gospel on this head is that according to Dr. James Rush, whose 'Philosophy of the Human Voice,' published in 1827, seems not to stale with age. Some of Prof. Corson's suggestions may be hard to realize, but not a few are entirely practical, and a wide reading of his book by those engaged in literary teaching would be productive of much good.

Graded Schools in the United States of America. By Mary H. Page. Pp. 71.

Methods of Education in the United States. By Alice Zimmern. Pp. 178.

The Education of Girls in the United States. By Sara A. Burstall. Pp. 204.

The Training of Teachers in the United States of America. By A. Blanche Bramwell and H. Millicent Hughes. Pp. 198. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co.

THESE volumes embody the separately written reports of the five women teachers, English or Welsh, who in 1893 were awarded by the trustees of the Gilchrist Educational Trust travelling fellowships "for the purpose of studying and reporting upon Secondary Schools for Girls and Training Colleges for Women in different parts of the States." Although none of the reports can pretend to the rank of an educational classic, and each in a measure goes over ground covered by the others, they are as a group worthy of the attention of all whom the making of our national characteristics, mental, moral, and physical, may concern.

Where coeducation is so widely practised in public schools and in colleges, it is impossible to write exclusively of the education of women or girls. But Miss Burstall in particular gives space in her report to the colleges for women, reaching the general conclusion that at such colleges the customary exaction of fifteen hours' per week attendance on lectures takes away "one of the greatest privileges of English college life among women—time to think." Of course she and her colleagues are told much about the place education holds as a national institution. Nevertheless, "the enormous inequality of American schools, greater than any that can be found in England," soon becomes evident. Reasons for this are found in the disproportion of salaries—sometimes a starvation wage—and in the licensing of teachers to a single grade, whereas in England "even the smallest children of the school are allowed to reap some advantage from the presence of university-trained teachers." In nothing, however, are grosser discrepancies shown than in the teaching of citizenship. From a text-book in use in New York schools, Miss Zimmern culls, among others, the following choice extract: "We have no King John who can imprison us at his will, or smother innocent little boys. We have no Queen Elizabeth to dictate how we shall worship the ever-living and true God. None such are found in this glorious Republic, in which the supreme power is vested in the people." Add to this that from the primary department upwards children are taught to believe that "America licks creation," and we have the corner-stone for the self-satisfied blatancy which stands to the average American for patriotism.

An interesting distinction made by the same writer is that, broadly speaking, American teaching aims at oral, English at written, work. The result of the former method is that pupils become self-reliant, quick and ready of expression, but not neat, methodical, or accurate. "English teachers would be greatly shocked at the style of much of the American written work. American teachers would be even more shocked at the untidy, scrappy answers given by many of our pupils," and "at their inability to think quickly." (Zimmern, p. 48.) The measure of truth in these observations will be borne out by the experience of any one with a large correspondence among women college graduates, of whose handwriting and spelling, unreformed from the grammar and high-school periods, an upper-class English tradeswoman, or one with a secondary education only, would too often be ashamed.

The ingenuity of American teaching is, on the other hand, never shown to better advantage than where lessons in civics combine, as in a Massachusetts high school, enthusiasm and interest for the subjects with absolute impartiality. (Burstall, p. 92.) There is united testimony to the American pupil's power of self-discipline, sense of responsibility for the large measure of personal liberty allowed in schools, and capacity, unknown under the different conditions of the older country, for the independent use of books and libraries. Unfortunately, no provision could be discovered for enabling pupils to develop along their own lines at varying rates, and the wise remark is made that a country robs itself in depriving the boy or girl who possesses special talents of the opportunity of cultivating them. Repeated comments on the high temperature of schoolrooms—to which is partly attributed the delicacy and excitability of American girls—must be accepted as true, with the admission that we thus at once sap youthful vigor and lay the foundation for the abnormal liking for over-heated rooms and the insensibility to foul air which are among our worst national peculiarities.

That teaching is a profession which, like every other, requires technical training, is the belief that underlies the investigations of Misses Bramwell and Hughes, themselves trainers of teachers. Of what has already been done in this country in providing pedagogical instruction—in more or less competent State or city normal schools, in training-colleges, and in university departments of pedagogy—and what left undone—noticeably in the omission of practising schools like the one at the German University of Jena, in connection with such departments—their volume gives a very fair epitome. It is to be remarked that although the women's colleges turn out teachers in such large numbers, not one of them figures in the list of institutions having departments of pedagogy worthy of the name of such. The idea that college graduation alone equips for successful teaching is, however, losing ground among thoughtful persons, especially those whose acquaintance with graduates of both sexes is most intimate. A knowledge of what is newly called, with a distinction unpleasantly suggestive of educational cant, child-nature, is not handed out with the degree. Neither will the best training-college be able to impart it to those who have not understanding. But until correlation is established between the minds of teacher and pupils, the correlating of subjects and systems will be labor largely spent in vain.

A History of Amherst College, from 1821 to 1891. By William S. Tyler, D.D., LL.D. New York: Frederick H. Hitchcock.

THIS book, as it originally appeared soon after the fiftieth anniversary of the college in 1871, was an account of its first half-century. Prof. Tyler has now greatly abridged it, omitting the bulky and less relevant portions, completing his story of President Stearns's administration, and adding that of President Seelye. The newly written part cannot fail to strike many of the alumni and friends of the college as lacking that entire fairness desirable in such a record; as conspicuous in its omissions; as partial if not partisan; as in some sense an opportunity used for eulogizing personal friends, occasionally with lavishness, while other names which will occur as quickly and favorably are dismissed with barest mention. Those who best know the story of the institution

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from 1821 to the beginning of President Gates's administration in 1890 will be forced to read largely between the lines, and it is a pity that the unwritten portion cannot be perused by all its readers. As the recognized official historian of the college, Prof. Tyler has, of course, bestowed much painstaking care upon the work, and a good general idea is given of the early years when friends were few and funds small. The book cannot be neglected in the history of higher education in New England, and to the average reader will probably tell enough.

Certainly Amherst had a varied experience; its mere founding, against bitter opposition, foreshadowing in some degree the trials which followed its establishment. Dr. Moore, called from Dartmouth to the Presidency of Williams College in 1815, was invited to become the first leader of an embryonic Amherst six years later. He accepted the trust, and many Williams students accompanied him to the new institution, thus stirring in the Berkshire college a strife of strong feeling by no means extinct. The first President of Amherst came to no bed of roses, and he passed away before "his beloved college had even been recognized as a college by the Legislature, dying, like Moses on Pisgah, in sight only of the promised land." But the number of students increased, and prosperity seemed approaching, when, under President Humphrey, a disastrous reaction set in, reducing the college to the verge of dissolution. President Hitchcock then took the reins in his stalwart hands, bringing brighter days, valuable friends and patrons, and an enduring reputation in science. Under the fourth President, Dr. Stearns, a period of scholarships and prizes set in, and a remarkable system of gymnastic and hygienic exercise was instituted; the old Barrett gymnasium, erected in 1859–60, being the first college gymnasium in the country. Funds now rapidly increased, for President Stearns was emphatically a man of affairs, and during his administration of nearly a quarter of a century, from 1854 onward, six new buildings were added to the group on College Hill, and many additional chairs established. Followed by President Seelye's wise and scholarly incumbency, the years from 1876 to 1890 saw many advancements, among them the inception of the plan of student self-government, so called, and a greatly enlarged system of electives. President Seelye, at the time of his appointment, had been for eighteen years Professor of Philosophy in the college, was then a member of Congress as well, and the first and only Amherst alumnus ever elected to the office of President. His administration was as successful financially as intellectually, the long list of gifts and bequests bearing evidence of his practical abilities, and at his resignation, in 1890, the college was left in a condition of heretofore unequalled prosperity and hopefulness. Dr. Gates began his duties as President in the autumn of 1890, although not formally inaugurated until the following Commencement, and the distinctive years of his administration are not touched upon.

In the matter of absolute impartiality in the telling of an interesting story, Prof. Tyler's history certainly leaves something to be desired; indeed, abundant room is left for a future historian to go over the same ground, writing from a broader and more generous survey of the facts and the men, and with ampler justice to all concerned.

An Æthiopian History. Written in Greek by Heliodorus. Englished by Thomas Underdowne anno 1587. London: D. Nutt. 1895.

So many resurrections of buried authors are taking place in these latter days that one might suspect there was some kind of a literary doomsday toward. Of these long-entombed worthies, the latest to burst his cerements is Thomas Underdowne, whose version of the 'Æthiopics' of Heliodorus has just been added to the "Tudor Translations."

Heliodorus is himself a rather piquant personality, whether regarded as a Christian bishop who resigned his mitre rather than abandon his romance, or as a Phœnician pagan who traced his pedigree back to the Sun. But his most innocent and virginal tale is interesting as the parent of a long line of romances of love and adventure, including the 'Arcadia' of Sidney, the tomes of Calprenède and Scudéri, and thus the grandparent of the modern novel. And Underdowne's version is still more interesting as a remarkable example of a translation that surpasses the original. Heliodorus's language is rather colorless and jejune, while Underdowne's version is a masterpiece of Tudor English. The man was a born stylist, and had the secret of that incomparable prose which is familiar to all in the Authorized Version. Open where you will, you come upon such sentences as, "Surely this deede was not without much glorie, for he who was their maister waited upon them, and he who tooke them prysoners was content to serve them." His slightest descriptive touches are full of life: "Calasiris carried Cariclias quiver wrapped in a torne and naughty peece of leather, the wrong ende downeward, on his shoulders, as if it had bene some other thing." He has the secret of the long, harmonious, and perfectly organic period of Hooker. Here is the half of one:

"When he came in and sawe her sittinge in her chaire of estate, clothed in purple and clothe of golde, glorious with jolly jewels, and her costly bonet, finely attyred and decked, with her garde about her and the chiefe magistrates of the Persians by her, he was not abashed a whit, but rather the more incouraged against the Persian braverie, as though he had quite forgotten that whereof he talked with Cariclia as touchinge reverence and worshipping, so that he neither bowed knee nor fell downe to her, but holding up his heade alofte, said, Arsace of royall bloude, God save thee."

The editor, Mr. Whibley, has prefixed an excellent introduction, and the publishers have dressed the book in paper and type that make it a delight to the eye.

The History of Florence, Mass. Edited by Charles A. Sheffield. Florence: The Editor. 1895.

THE handsomely illustrated small folio, 'Northampton: The Meadow City,' has been closely followed up by the above supplementary work on a manufacturing, yet still rural, suburb of Northampton. It, too, is illustrated with exceptional discrimination. Mr. Sheffield has displayed great diligence in exploring the early local history of the place, but he approaches a wider public only in the seventh chapter, which deals with the mulberry fever and silk enterprise of which Samuel Whitmarsh was the originator. The failure of this speculation paved the way for the formation of the Northampton Association of Education and Industry, with whose entrance upon the scene in chapter viii. Mr. Sheffield displays if not the main motive of his researches, at least by far the most interesting feature of his narrative. Hitherto the chief source of information has been a truthful but rather abstract account of the "Northampton Community" in Noyes's 'History of American Socialisms.' Mr. Sheffield now supplies from the records and letter-books the most useful details, the text of circulars and constitutions, the names and portraits of leaders and members, and sets forth clearly the causes of failure, as well as the permanent legacy of the experiment. One stage, however, in the transformation of Whitmarsh's Northampton Silk Company to the Community is apparently overlooked by Mr. Sheffield. The purchase of that company's plant and property he implies on p. 68 to have been made for the socialistic purpose from the beginning, but the truth is that it was a purely commercial transaction, and that "the community fever," supervening directly upon "the mulberry fever," gave a new direction to the thoughts of Messrs. Hill, Conant, Benson, and Adam. This is confirmed by the document on p. 73, in which Conant and Adam, representing "the owners of the property known as the Northampton Silk Factory Estate," approve of the principles laid down in the Community's circular, and offer to sell out to "the *projected* Northampton Association of Education and Industry."

The omission is important, for Mr. Conant, on whom the greatest reliance was placed for business success, with two others, withdrew in the following year (1842), and Prof. Adam accounted for it by the fact that "their object in joining us appears to have been, from the first, *pecuniary* advantage, not *moral* improvement or *social* usefulness." They had been, in other words, momentarily carried away by the sentiment of the hour. "Ils ne mouraient pas tous," Lafontaine says of the beasts and the pest, "mais tous étaient frappés." The pure industrial ability of the community felt itself hampered by the moral and social attachments, and accordingly got out before the crash. The educational side was equally hampered by the industrial condition, and was seriously crippled by the withdrawal of Prof. Adam (who had held the Oriental chair at Harvard). In the end, Florence's best endowment was from the industrial sequelæ of the community; yet the philanthropic spirit of Samuel Hill and his coadjutors has its monument in excellent schools and a finely housed lyceum and library—to say nothing of Alfred Lilly's outside benefactions to the neighboring Smith College.

The Northampton Community has shared the fate of Brook Farm in being without a chronicle of its every-day life, as well as of its progress from beginning to end, by one who lived through it all. It has had much less notoriety than Brook Farm, and had no literary man of genius like Hawthorne for an inmate, or like Emerson for a sympathetic if wary visitor. Still, among its visitors and occasional inmates many famous names are to be met with, especially in the abolition world; and David Lee Child was trying to raise beet-sugar in the neighborhood while his wife, Lydia Maria Child, edited the *National Anti-slavery Standard* in New York. That remarkable woman, Mrs. Stowe's "African Sibyl," Sojourner Truth, was one of the most picturesque figures of the Community, and Frederick Douglass, who gives here his reminiscences of it, has a for him unusually harsh word for his countrywoman as one who "seemed to feel it her duty to trip me up in my speeches, and to ridicule my efforts to speak and act like a person of cultivation and refinement." The greater of the two colored orators perhaps never forgave Sojourner for her once punctuating his gloomy

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discourse on the prospect of emancipation with the sharp recall to a higher power—"Frederick, is God dead?" There was another colored American at Florence, David Ruggles, who, though blind, carried on a successful water-cure on the fatal Mill River, to which Southerners came later when it had been acquired by the German Dr. Charles Munde—though some quit it as soon as he cast his vote for Abraham Lincoln. Dr. Munde, by the way, is said by Mr. Sheffield to have wished to call the river the Arno, and the place Florence, and to have really been the author of the latter appellation. We, for our part, had supposed the story true which made the selection a shrewd device of the silk-manufacturers, who could thus use "truthfully" an Italian label for their sewing-silk, and so compete with the imported article.

A Student's Manual of English Constitutional History. By D. J. Medley. Oxford: Blackwell. 1894.

THIS book has two striking features: it entirely ignores political history, and its arrangement is purely topical. In his preface Mr. Medley states that the few existing text books on constitutional history are unsatisfactory, because they subordinate the development of an institution to the details of general or political history—to details concerning changes of dynasty and deeds of particular men. We do not believe that this statement is correct; it does not apply, for example, to the well-known text-book of Bishop Stubbs. Moreover, it is impossible completely to separate the growth of English institutions from the political details. The constitutional history of England was profoundly influenced by the nature of such events as the Anglo-Saxon invasions and the Norman conquest, and by the personality of certain kings, and it is impossible to comprehend the constitutional changes of some reigns without a careful study of the political movements of the time.

The other characteristic feature of the book is its topical arrangement. Its eleven chapters deal with distinct subjects; there is a consecutive history of each institution from the earliest to the present time. Most text-books err in having too many divisions into periods; the student's attention is distracted from the growth of a particular institution when he is hurried from one topic to another in a narrowly limited period. The remedy for this evil is to make each period cover several centuries. But Mr. Medley goes too far in this direction; his work is not divided into periods. Chronological subdivisions of some sort are necessary because the institutions of an age (for example, the Anglo-Saxon period) are correlated; an understanding of one institution postulates some knowledge of certain others, and their interrelation differs in different periods. Moreover, in some chapters of this book it is assumed that the student knows something concerning institutions which are examined in detail in a later chapter. For example, on page 15 the Witan is referred to, but it is defined and explained on page 102, in chapter iii. Thus the work will be more useful to persons who have already studied the whole subject than to beginners.

The chief excellence of this text-book is that it brings together many of the results of recent research—the conclusions of such writers as Seebohm, Vinogradoff, Maitland, and Round. It contains much fresh material in a compact form. But we fear that the desire to compress many facts into a small space often leads to obscurity. Mr. Medley's brief exposition of some subjects (for example, uses and strict settlements, in chapter i.) is unintelligible to the average educated reader and quite incomprehensible to the average college youth; and his references to collateral reading are too meagre to enable students to supplement his statements.

Nicolai Ivanovich Lobachevsky. By A. Vasiliev. Translated from the Russian by George Bruce Halsted. Austin, Tex.: The Neomon, 2407 Guadalupe Street. 1894.

A GOOD many interesting particulars about the non-Euclidean geometry and its author can by searching be picked out of this ill-arranged pamphlet. Lobatchevsky was born in 1793 in the town of Makarieff, some forty miles above Nizhni-Novgorod, on the Volga. His father was a peasant (Ch. Rumelin says an architect, forgetting, apparently, that a *Bauer* is not usually a *Baumeister*). He was entered at the newly founded University of Kazan in 1807. He must have impressed his parents with his genius. Prof. Vasilieff tells us he was a passionate boy. His behavior was always reputed bad. Later there was some terrible storm of passion which left him for the rest of his life taciturn and stern. He took the degree of master in 1811. After graduation he entered the Observatory and studied practical astronomy under J. J. Littrow (whose name Dr. Halsted spells Lettrov). In 1814 he was made adjunct professor of mathematics, and in 1816 full professor. But the University of Kazan was hardly a regular university, and he had to teach astronomy also; and for some time physics and chemistry besides. "One of these lectures," the only one on chemistry, Prof. Vasilieff tells us, "was accompanied by experiments." In 1825 Lobatchevsky added to his duties those of librarian to the University, and so continued for ten years. It was about this time that one Magnetsky was rector of the University, and the dire administration of this religious fanatic and barbarous foe of science is evidently a familiar tradition of horror in Kazan to this day. In 1827 Lobatchevsky himself was elected to the rectorship, which he held for nineteen years. In 1846 he retired from the University, and went to live in a village which belonged to him, Belovoliskaya Slobodka, on the Volga, near the mouth of the Kama River. He was now appointed curator, or assistant curator, of the district of Kazan. He interested himself vastly in agriculture, becoming the president of his branch of the Imperial Economical Society, and taking the medal of the Imperial Agricultural Society for his improvements in the treatment of wools. Finally, he became blind, and in 1856 died.

Kazan was not the *milieu* for a man of genius, especially not for so profound a genius as that of Lobatchevsky, and he did little mathematical work beyond writing text-books. What little he did publish was received with derision and contempt. Who in Russia in 1834 could possibly see any sense in the contention of Lobatchevsky that it was one thing for a curved line to be continuous, and quite another for it to have definite tangents? The mathematicians of Western Europe did not become aware of the distinction until nearly 1880, when Weierstrass suggested that a line might be wavy, and these waves carry smaller waves, and those still smaller waves, and so on *ad infinitum*. Down to this day there is but one text-book on the differential calculus (that of Camille Jordan, in its second edition) which introduces the distinction. All of Lobatchevsky's writings are marked by the same high strung logic, and there is nothing a semi-civilized people respects less than extremely accurate thought.

Lobatchevsky made some experimental researches in terrestrial physics. He was also one of the first carefully to observe and call attention to the solar corona. It is a marvellous instance of man's stupendous power of shutting his eyes to plain facts that this phenomenon, one of the most startling, not to say thrilling, in nature, was not enough noticed to receive a name until 1851. But it was observed by Lobatchevsky at the eclipse of 1842, July 8,* and described with care. He also gave a theory of it which, as reported by Vasilieff and translated by Dr. Halsted, seems pretty puerile.

According to the evidence adduced by Prof. Vasilieff, it appears that both the reputed authors of the non-Euclidean geometry, Lobatchevsky and Bolyai, probably derived their first knowledge of it indirectly from Gauss. A letter is extant, written in 1799 by Gauss to Bolyai's father, which contains a very plain hint of the thing. And Vasilieff now informs us that Lobatchevsky's teacher of mathematics was J. M. C. Bartels, who had been the teacher and devoted friend of Gauss, from 1785 to 1807, when Bartels went to Kazan. It is next to impossible that, coming then into very intimate relations with Lobatchevsky, he should not have mentioned Gauss's studies in the non-Euclidean geometry. However, Gauss was not the first discoverer. Lambert in 1785, in a printed book, spoke plainly of a space where the angles of a triangle should sum up to less than 180 degrees, and mentions one of its most remarkable properties. Gauss most likely knew of this. Nor was Lambert first in the field, for the Jesuit Saccheri had discovered the thing before 1734.

Letters and Sketches from the New Hebrides. By Maggie W. Paton (Mrs. Dr. John G. Paton of Aniwa). Edited by Rev. Jas. Paton. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1895. Illustrated. Pp. xiii, 382, 8vo.

IT would be hard to find a more truthful or graphic picture of missionary life than is contained in these letters. Writing only for her family circle, Mrs. Paton was not hampered, as the missionary generally is, by the necessity of interesting and stimulating the contributors to her support. Nothing is out of proportion, therefore, in her picture. She describes the failures as carefully as the successes, the comforts no less than the hardships of her life. And, what is perhaps rare in missionary literature, the somewhat sombre narrative is not infrequently enlivened by humorous touches. In an account of the manner in which the natives dressed for church, for instance, she says: "One man, I remember, came prancing in, looking so delighted with himself in a snow-white vest—absolutely nothing else! Another came stalking majestically, with a woman's skirt pinned round his throat and the tips of his fingers appearing at the bottom of it." All this she bore with praiseworthy self-control until her husband's whispered words, "Shouldn't we be grateful to God to see them all coming out to church *so nicely dressed*," sent her into

*This is the local civil date, N. S. The O. S. date was June 26. Prof. Halsted gives it as July 26, bringing the month to N. S., but not the day. Poggendorff (Wörterbuch) makes it June 8, bringing the day to N. S., but not the month. A "Boston Almanac" for that year, referred to for the date, gives it as July 7, which can be defended as being the *Boston time* of the beginning of the eclipse. Herschell's 'Outlines' also gives it as July 7, being the Greenwich *astronomical* date of the greater part of the eclipse. Such is the treatment minor dates receive. No other books were referred to. Not one was right.

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"prolonged convulsions." During one of her frequent illnesses he acted as cook, and she gives his recipe for making water gruel: "Equal parts of meal, sugar, and water (a cupful of each for one dose); boil all together till there is a smell of singeing, whereby you know it is sufficiently cooked!" The most interesting and valuable passages are the sketches of the life of the natives, in which she characteristically brings out the weakness as well as the strength of their religious impressions. Very vivid, too, are her descriptions of the hurricanes and earthquakes,—in one day there were ten shocks—to which the New Hebrides Islands are subject. We have grave doubts, however, of the wisdom of printing letters intended only for the narrow circle of the writer's family. The privacy of life is almost certain to be rudely invaded, the most sacred feelings to be needlessly exposed to the public gaze—as is in a measure true of this book. There are some merely trivial passages in which no one but those immediately concerned can have any interest; and there are others (most pathetic and powerfully written, no doubt) descriptive of scenes from which all but the nearest should be shut out.

The book is very attractive in its appearance, and contains several interesting pictures of natives and landscape in the islands, including some reproductions of sketches by the author.

Selections from the Correspondence of Thomas Barclay, formerly British Consul-General at New York. Edited by George Lockhart Rives. Harper & Bros.

THE correspondence printed in this volume has a high historical value. Thomas Barclay was a native of New York, of Scotch descent. The Robert Barclay who wrote the 'Apology' for the Quakers was of his family, and had induced a brother, the immediate ancestor of Thomas, to emigrate to America. A son of the emigrant took orders and labored in Albany and among the Indians. He was succeeded by his son, the father of the writer of these letters. Thomas was born in 1753, entered King's College in 1768, married a De Lancey, and remained loyal during the Revolution, serving in the Loyal American Regiment for seven years. At the peace he went to Nova Scotia with a large number of loyalists, where he resided until appointed by the King a commissioner to determine the true River St. Croix on the northeastern boundary. His services in that negotiation led to his becoming H. B. M. Consul-General at New York, an office he held until the war of 1812 interrupted all relations between Great Britain and the United States. In that war he was the agent for the British prisoners in the hands of the Americans, and at the return of peace was the English commissioner to determine the Northeast boundary. He died in 1830.

The bare mention of these various commissions is sufficient to indicate the estimation in which Barclay's ability and services were held by the British ministry, and in no case was their confidence abused. This in itself is high praise of his judgment and diplomatic qualities, for it was a period of great and increasing friction between the United States and England. The Revolution left many questions undetermined: the treatment of loyalists, the payment of debts due to the British, the surrender of the posts, compensation for slaves, and boundaries. These, and the claims of England as to impressing seamen, were sufficient to maintain a strained relation between the two countries, out of which war eventually came. It is difficult to appreciate the intensity of feeling shown on these questions, and for the first time the British side is temperately and intelligently stated in Barclay's letters. Although the consul-general, he experienced difficulty in securing a fishing-boat at $300 a week to carry his despatches to the commander of the British ships in the harbor, the men asserting they "could never again return to New York." For a time the city was practically blockaded; and when a shot from an English vessel killed a man on board an American sloop, a mob collected, burned the British colors, and even proposed to ransack the consul's house, and detain him as a hostage till the English captain had been delivered up to be tried for murder. For a week Barclay was unable to leave his house. This was years before actual hostilities.

This outburst of popular feeling was the result of accumulated insults through impressments; yet the claims of the English merited attention. Whenever one of their war ships reached America, desertions would occur. To make good the losses, men were forcibly taken from American vessels, under the plea that they were subjects of the King. To guard against this abuse, certificates of citizenship, or protections, were issued, and even to some who had not been in the States a month. "Let the Scotch accent or Irish brogue be ever so strong, it is to have no weight where opposed to a certificate of citizenship." It was difficult to remain judicial when pressed by the unjustifiable acts of the British captains on the one hand, and the equally strong and indefensible acts on the part of the Americans. Barclay in this never overstepped the proper bounds, and the tone of his correspondence is admirable. He chided captains and even the British minister for extreme measures, and recognized the justice of the American claims in cases where the naval authorities were against him.

It would be too long a story to point out the many interesting and valuable points of the long official career covered in this correspondence. The personal and historical incidents are numerous. Hamilton is employed to defend a loyalist, and Barclay deemed him "the ablest counsel" in New York. When Hamilton fell in the duel, Barclay wrote: "I consider him even as a loss to his Majesty and our Government, from the prudence of his measures, his conciliatory disposition, his abhorrence of the French Revolution and all republican principles and doctrine, and his very great attachment to the British Government." The visit of Jerome Bonaparte to America is touched upon; Barclay strove to have him intercepted on his return voyage to France. Glimpses of Newport and New York life give a pleasant social background to the severer official duties, and the sharp contrast between life in Nova Scarcity (as Scotia was called) and the new States is developed in so uncomplaining a manner as to make us sympathize with the exiled loyalists, rather than with the now independent patriots.

The editing of these letters has been a labor of love on the part of Mr. Rives, but it demands more than a passing notice. The difficulties were great, as the references are often obscure and call for an intimate knowledge of state affairs and family connections. It is rarely that we have seen such a task so judiciously performed, and the balance of Barclay's mind is reflected in the notes of his editor. Mr. Rives's temperate treatment of disputed matters is a model for those who write political pamphlets in the guise of history.

A Philological Essay concerning the Pygmies of the Ancients. By Edward Tyson, M.D. 1699. Now edited, with an introduction treating of Pigmy races and fairy tales, by Bertram C. A. Windle. [Bibliothèque de Carabas. Vol. IX.] 8vo, pp. civ., 103. London: David Nutt. 1894.

LOVERS of quaint lore are under especial obligations to Prof. Windle for his reprint of Dr. Tyson's essay, and to the publishers for the very attractive form in which it appears. The original work, of which this was a part, was entitled '*Orang-Outang, sive Homo sylvestris:* or, the Anatomie of a Pygmie,' and is interesting as "the first attempt which had been made to deal with the anatomy of any of the anthropoid apes." After the scientific part of his subject has been treated, the author endeavors to prove the truth of the belief of the ancients in the existence of a race of pigmies, which was nearly universally doubted in his days. Only he held that the "little people" who, in Homer, fought with the cranes, and, in Ctesias, "do attend the King of India," were apes. This view he presents in the charming style characteristic of the best authors of his time, and with a scholarship shown in a wealth of quotations from classical and mediæval writers.

The introduction by the editor is a worthy accompaniment of the essay, both from the manner in which it is written and the knowledge of the general subject displayed. He treats first of the geographical distribution of the pigmy races according to our present information, dwelling particularly on the dwarfs of Central Africa. He seems to have overlooked the best description of this race, that given by Dr. F. Stuhlmann in his monumental work on the last expedition of Emin Pasha. An identification of these races with those described by the old writers is followed by an attempt to give some idea of the localities and dwellings of the little folk of story and legend, as the mounds, barrows, caves, rocks, trees, and water. The origin of this fairy mythology, Mr. Windle holds, at the close of his interesting review, is not to be explained wholly by a single fact, as, for instance, a dim memory of the mound-dwellers, as some have maintained. The idea, so widely diffused, of the existence of "little people" is of a most complex nature, though "the souls of the departed and the underground world which they inhabit are largely responsible for it."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adye, Gen. Sir John. Recollections of a Military Life. Macmillan. $3.50.
Alden, Mrs. G. R. Only Ten Cents. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Barr, Robert. The Face and the Mask. F. A. Stokes Co. 75 cents.
Behrends, Rev. A. J. F. The Old Testament under Fire. Butler Bible Work Co.
Burke, Ulick R. A History of Spain, from the Earliest Times to the Death of Ferdinand the Catholic. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
Couch, A. J. Q. The Golden Pomp: A Procession of English Lyrics from Surrey to Shirley. London: Methuen & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.00.
Ditchfield, P. H. Books Fatal to their Authors. [Book-Lover's Library.] Armstrong. $1.25.
Eberhard, Prof. V. Die Grundgebilde der Ebenen Geometrie. Erster Band. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Forbes, Archibald. Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan. 75 cents.
Fraser, Marie. In Stevenson's Samoa. Macmillan. 80 cents.
Gould, E. R. L. Popular Control of the Liquor Traffic. Baltimore: Friedenwald Co.
Green, J. R. A Short History of the English People. Illustrated. Vol. IV. Harpers. $5.
Gundelfinger, Sigmund. Vorlesungen aus der Analytischen Geometrie der Kegelschnitte. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Hepworth, G. H. Brown Studies; or, Campfires and Morals. E. P Dutton & Co.
Herbert, W. V. The Defence of Plevna, 1877. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.

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Holzmüller, Gustav. Methodisches Lehrbuch der Elementar-Mathematik. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Hope, Anthony. A Change of Air. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Hope, Anthony. Sport Royal, and Other Stories. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Jackson, Joseph. Through Glade and Mead: A Contribution to Local Natural History. Worcester, Mass.: Putnam, Davis & Co.
Jacobs, Joseph. An Inquiry into the Sources of the History of the Jews in Spain. Macmillan. $1.75.
Jacobi, Hermann. Gaina Sûtras. [Sacred Books of the East.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Kipling, Rudyard. Prose Tales. New uniform edition. 6 vols. Macmillan. $7.50.
Koch, Prof. On the Bacteriological Diagnosis of Cholera, etc. W. R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLII. O'Dunn—Owen. Macmillan. $3.75.
Leland, C. G. Songs of the Sea and Lays of the Land. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Lucy, A. W. The Rt. Hon. W. E. Gladstone: A Study from Life. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Moreto, Augustin. El Desdén con el Desdén. W. R. Jenkins. 35 cents
Moss, Fletcher. Chronicles of Cheadle, Cheshire. Didsbury, Eng.: The Author.
Moss, Fletcher. Didsbury: Sketches, Reminiscences and Legends. Manchester, Eng.: George Falkner & Sons.
Nodier, Charles. Trilby, the Fairy of Argyle. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Norman, Henry. The Peoples and Politics of the Far East. Scribners. $4.
Parkin, G. R. The Great Dominion: Studies of Canada. Macmillan. $1.75.
Pole, William. The Evolution of Whist. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Prestwich, Joseph. Some Controverted Questions of Geology. Macmillan. $3.75.
Prince, Helen C. The Story of Christine Rochefort. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Public Library Hand-book. Denver: The Carson-Harper Co.
Rae, John. Life of Adam Smith. Macmillan. $4.
Ragozin, Zénaïde A. The Story of Vedic India. Putnams. $1.50.
Reed, Rev. J. S. The Crozier and the Keys. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Rhoscomyl, Owen. The Jewel of Ynys Galon. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Riehl, Prof. A. Introduction to the Theory of Science and Metaphysics. London: Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
Rival, Mme. Jeanne. Annexés: Scènes de la Vie Alsacienne. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Roberts, J. W. Looking Within. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Rowbotham, J. F. The Troubadours and Courts of Love. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Russell, W. C. The Emigrant Ship. Cassell. 50 cents.
Schwarz, A. The Horse: its External and Internal Organization. Whittaker. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. Poetical Works. 2 vols. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Shelton, W. H. A Man without a Memory, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.
Shutter, Rev. M. D. A Child of Nature. Boston: J. H. West. $1.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Missing Bride. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Starkey, Alfred. Religio Clerici, and Other Poems. London: Elliot Stock.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. Cases on Constitutional Law, with Notes. Part IV. Cambridge, Mass.: C. W. Sever.
The Bibles and Beliefs of Mankind. Gay Bros. & Co.
The Psalter, with a Concordance and Other Auxiliary Matter. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
The Snow-Church Company's Legal and Banking Year-Book. 1895. Snow-Church Surety Co.
Tracy, Frederick. The Psychology of Childhood. 2d ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90 cents.
Traill, H. D. Social England. Vol. III. From the Accession of Henry VIII. to the Death of Elizabeth. London: Cassell; New York: Putnams. $3.50.
Tucker, Elizabeth S. Dame Prism: A Story for Girls. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Varigny, C. de. The Women of the United States. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Wallace, William. The Divine Surrender: A Mystery Play. London: Elliot Stock.
Walker, Francis. Letters of a Baritone. Scribners. $1.25.
Watts, H. E. Don Quixote. New ed. Vol. I. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
White, W. H. Spinoza's Tractatus de Intellectus Emendatione. Macmillan. $1.

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